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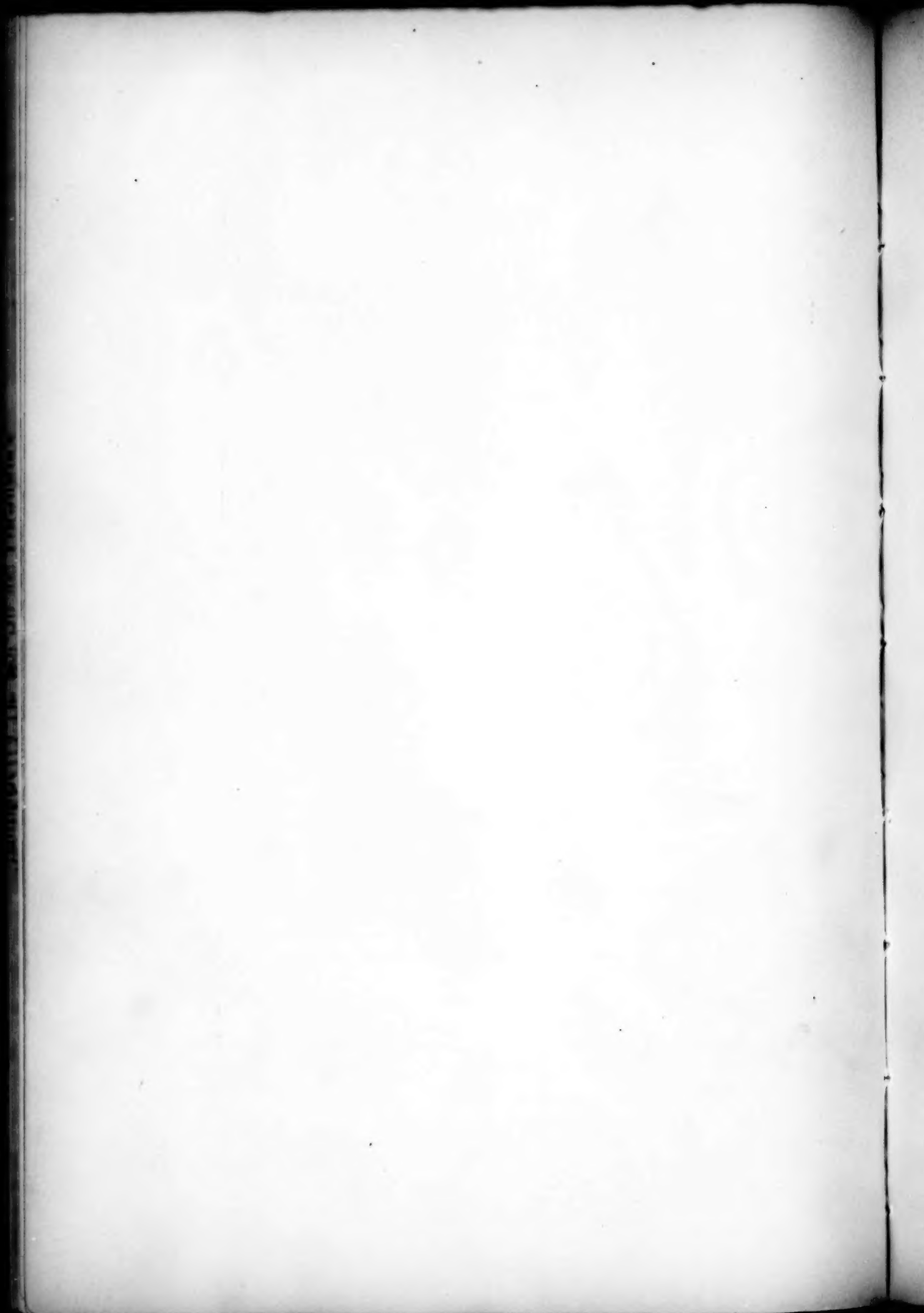
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A MODEL SCHOOL

By PROFESSOR P. P. CLAXTON, head of the Department of Pedagogy in the University of Tennessee

The model country school, after all, is not so difficult a thing to realize if we consider a few principles of education which will give us an idea of what the country school should be like. We must remember that in all time it has been the purpose of education to prepare the pupils for the lives which they are to live. We must remember, also, that all education grows out of the life that the people really live. It is a selective process, it is a revising process. The law of the less of interest the less of growth, the rule of beginning where you are and going to where you must reach, hold in the country just as they do in the city.

The time was when we took probably one boy out of ten and one girl out of fifteen or twenty, or more, and we expected these people to be professional men, or ladies and gentlemen of leisure; they were to be lawyers and statesmen and orators and literary gentlemen; they were to be possible leaders, they were to have to do in some way with talk, and we taught them for that purpose very largely, and so we had a fixed course. But the day has come when we are undertaking to educate the children of all the people for all the walks of life. We are beginning to try the great experiment of bringing intelligence and intellectuality and heart and spirit to all industry, to all the life that all the people must live. We are trying to answer that great prayer that Jesus prayed for His disciples—not to take them out of the world, but to make them a part of the world; that each boy and girl may do with less labor the work their parents did, and that each man shall walk away from his daily task a free man; that the man who turns the clod may himself be more than a clod and the man that beats the anvil may have a heart more sympathetic than his own iron.

All people must be prepared for two things. First, they must be prepared for life. That is the great thing in educational machinery, it must give culture, that enlargement, that giving of the mind, that giving of the soul and the heart to the task, that bringing of

each individuality into contact with the great human interests of the world. Without that, all life must be a failure. Whether the boy is to live in the country as a farmer, or in the city as a professional man, the one great profession of all men, and all women, is humanity. So every school, in the city or in the country, must remember to open its doors to humanity for the pupils in the schools, it must make of them men and women, it must bring them into contact with the great sources of inspiration, with the great literature, with the great heart of the world, with all that lifts up.

The second thing to be remembered is that all people must make a living. The day has come when people do not live in honor when they live by the labor of some one else. Every person must in some way either make his or her own support or contribute to the good of the world. I have come to believe that a good long step towards honest living is the ability to make an honest living, and that an honest life grows easily out of the ability to work in such a way that your work will contribute to your support and the support of those dependent on you. One must bear one's own burden and do something towards bearing the common burden. We will learn some day that that is the true solution of the negro problem in the South, when each negro has some ambition to make his own living and do something more; then other phases of the race problem will rapidly get out of the way.

With this in mind, what shall we do? The country school is for country children who know about country things, and who, if our civilization is to continue as it is in the South, must largely live in the country, though of course some of them will go to the city. For that reason the state will have to educate some of its own citizens in the country.

The country school should have a minimum of three acres of land. I think it ought to have more than that. I have to do with one where we have about twelve acres of land. There is a hill on which the schoolhouse is to be built, which slopes down to a pond. We are going to plant trees there and down at the pond we are going to plant water lilies. We are going to build a schoolhouse which will have six rooms about 24 by 36 feet, and in addition there will be a large assembly room, large enough to accommodate the people who will come there to any entertainment for the people of the district. There will be halls and cloak rooms in addition. It will be

built in an artistic way. The ceilings will be thirteen feet high, the rooms well lighted and well ventilated, and there will be water in it, pumped from a little spring down at the foot of a hill. It will be built of wood. I had a letter recently saying that it could be built of stone if we had another \$1,500; it is in a marble region; think of a marble schoolhouse!

There will be a house for the teacher. There ought to be teacherages in the country, as well as parsonages. The plans have been drawn for a house to cost about \$1,750; it would cost about \$3,000 in the city. It will be a good home for the teacher. To begin with, it will have the grounds around it laid out by our professor of horticulture in Tennessee. The principal of the school will be required to live in that house and keep it in such a way that the grounds and the house will be a model for the people about there. An orchard will be planted on the hill back of the schoolhouse, a strawberry bed will be made, if not for the sake of the fruit, at least for the sake of showing how to care for a vineyard and how to support it and how to pick off a few grapes so that the remainder will grow larger and be better than if all were allowed to remain on the vine. We shall attempt not to make any experiments, but to show what has been done in other places. We shall require the principal to see that it shall be demonstrated to the farmers what has been done by the most advanced knowledge in raising grapes in that section.

The course of study in a country school should be broad. I believe in the freest kind of election. All children should be taught to read, to write, to spell, something of language and something of culture from the human side. I suppose geography is in that list, the connection between the dead sciences and the live sciences if I may call them such for the moment, and history and literature. Through that course of study there will be a reading lesson every day. Children will be taught to read in a year or two, and then they will read for the sake of the matter. It will be the great literature of the world, that ought to be the common heritage of all the people—great because it takes hold of the human heritage of the heart. Then there will be a laboratory for chemistry and physics.

Some years ago I had the opportunity of studying the schools of Liverpool. I learned there the great lesson that little children

twelve to fifteen years old may begin in a laboratory, with apparatus that costs very little, to learn the great fundamental principles of physics and chemistry. That knowledge one must have in modern life to understand the things about him. The laboratory is not for everybody, but certainly for those who go into the higher grades.

There will be a shop in this school where boys can learn to do with hammer and plane the things necessary on a farm, and the girls will be taught to cook and sew.

I think everybody believes now, except a very few people, that the school must take hold on life; that if the girls in the country must take hold of that which is provided by their fathers and brothers and husbands, and use a fractional part of it and sell what remains to the world and put the money in the bank, then there is the opportunity for education to serve our country people.

Next comes the question of the teacher. If the people of the South solve the question of the teacher, all other questions will be solved. The Germans say, "As is the teacher, so is his school." The Swedes go further and say, "The teacher is the school." If we had in our Southern country nothing but bright, thinking men and women for teachers, we would have everything all right. We shall try to get the proper kind of teachers in those schools. Why should all teachers have the same examination? Let us find a man who can teach horticulture, a woman who can teach cooking and sewing. It makes no difference if she doesn't know what is the longest river in the world—she is teaching sewing.

We want somebody who can teach vocal music. The most practical thing, in city or country, after reading and writing, is the power to sing. I can be reasonably happy if I cannot translate American money into Russian kopecks, but I could not be happy if I could not sing at churches and Sunday schools. We want some one to teach the children how to sing; and if she does not know percentage quite well but can teach singing, I should say we need her for that school. In other words, we need six teachers for that school, for from two hundred and fifty to three hundred children live in a mile and a half of that school, and it hurts no child to walk that far.

I understand the difficulty of making any new thing a success, but these things are not very difficult, and the scheme ought to succeed.

THE TEACHER AND THE STATE

By DR. J. H. KIRKLAND, Chancellor of Vanderbilt University, Nashville,
Tennessee

The attention of educational leaders in the South during past years has been largely fixed on one problem—the need of universal primary education. No one will maintain that this need has been unduly emphasized or immoderately pressed. Every investigation that has been made has helped to establish the fact that a shameful degree of illiteracy prevails in the South among both the white and black races. That this degree of illiteracy is not so bad as it might be, or not so bad as it has been, does not content us. Honesty and candor compel us to admit that the present condition of education, especially so far as regards the white population of the South, is discreditable to us as a people and is without satisfactory excuse. We cannot excuse the deficiencies of 1903 by the history of 1863. Our wilderness has not lasted forty years; in this time we have passed from desolation to plenty and two generations have grown to manhood. But the true historian will always find in the past an explanation, if not an excuse, for the present, and so it is in this case.

Perhaps the most terrible feature of the great struggle through which the South passed was the depression that followed. Our people were face to face, not only with the ashes of their homes and the graves of their dead, but with the wreck and ruin of the whole social fabric which they had built up. In the desolation of that hour they felt stunned and bewildered. Their faces were set to the past and their hearts refused to be comforted; as the sea bird with broken wing disdains the fields of plenty and stalks the barren shore, with eye ever fixed on the ocean wave that was its home, and from which an unkind fate has driven it. For this attitude the South has been judged severely and harshly, and yet it was entirely natural. The next important fact to be remembered is the extreme impoverishment of the South. This was not a passing discomfort of a few years, but the fixed status of this section for twenty long years. During this period the assessed valuation of property steadily declined from more than five thousand million dollars to less than two thousand

million. No wonder we talk about the new South; of the old South nothing was left save its barren hillsides washed and scarred by four years of neglect. Statistics do not help much here. To strangers they tell but little, and we who passed through that period do not need them; our memories need no reminder. We know what it means to enter into association with those heavenly powers whose fellowship, as Goethe tells us, can only be attained by those who have eaten their bread with tears and spent the solitary watches of the night in silent suffering. I would not dwell on these things; they are only alluded to because they are essential in order to understand the problems with which we are concerned to-day.

Since 1880 the recuperation of the South has been rapid and remarkable. Our industrial revival has been so frequently commented on that it is familiar to all. The increase in value of farms, farm products, implements and machinery, live stock, cotton mills, coal mines, iron foundries, railroads, has far surpassed the general average of increase for the country at large and has been a surprise even to ourselves. The South is throwing off the burden of its poverty. Her orchards are loaded with fruit, her gardens with vegetables, her fields are white with a cotton crop worth four hundred million dollars, mines are opened on every hillside, furnace fires lighted in every valley, and the hum of machinery is heard in every village and by every stream. We are sending granite to New England, iron to Pennsylvania, marble to Italy, and "coals to Newcastle." But in the midst of this growing prosperity our progress in educational matters remains discreditable. The expenditure per capita of population has increased, but we are actually spending less for each pupil in attendance on public schools than was spent in 1870.

We recognize, therefore, the timeliness of the great movement which the Southern Education Board has organized. We are thankful for every paper than can be written, for every investigation that can be made, for every word of warning, of entreaty, of encouragement that can be uttered. In that union of effort we realize the oneness of the American people. The study of abstract problems promotes differences. The Northern point of view differs materially from the Southern in regard to some points in our life and civilization. Manufacturers of cheap politics parade these differences and accentuate them. An irresponsible journalism

arrays one section against another; but when we join forces in the great work of education, and see each other face to face, eye to eye, it then becomes clear that there are no material differences, that we all alike desire and are striving after the same things largely in the same way. Our problems in the South are yours, our interests are yours; yours, too, are our successes and yours our failures.

"For mankind are one in spirit, and an instinct bears along,
Round the earth's electric circle, the swift flash of right or wrong;
Whether conscious or unconscious, yet Humanity's vast frame
Through its ocean-sundered fibres feels the gush of joy or shame:
In the gain or loss of one race all the rest have equal claim."

Perhaps it is now in order to emphasize for a moment the supreme importance of the teacher in this work we are planning for the South. In doing so we do not detract from the importance of every other agency alluded to, but before them all and above them all I place as the supreme educational need of the South at this time, competent teachers. All the problems of the school are in the end the problem of the teacher. The schoolhouse is but a body, the teacher is the soul; even books are to most boys and girls dead rubbish until vitalized by the presence of an interpreter. We have had much to say recently of consolidating small schools into large ones, with large buildings and long terms. In a city of one of the oldest countries of the Old World is a school well consolidated, for it has 10,000 pupils; its term is long, for it knows no regular vacation; its pupils are earnest, for many of them live on the crumbs that fall from the table of plenty, but no light breaks for the pupil, or for the world from the Mohammedan University of Cairo. On the other hand, without a building, without endowment, Athens became the schoolmistress of the world. Socrates taught on street corners and his lessons are still being learned; Plato in an olive grove, and Zeno in a public porch; greater than all, Jesus of Nazareth taught by lake or by roadside, in the valley or on the mountain top. In all the ages past, universities have been great by reason of great teachers. Till recently they have had few buildings, and meager equipment outside of libraries, but for seven hundred years they have been the source of life and of light; they have outlived wars and revolutions, they have seen cities crumble, nations die, dynasties pass away, while they have lived on. Discarding their

own vernacular, they have spoken in a world language. The birth of our oldest universities, as at Salerno, Naples, Bologna and Paris, was due to the influence of great teachers, who, in some dismal rented hall, or in their own homes, spoke the words that drew the world to hear. And yet even universities are prone to forget these things at the present time. We go on erecting magnificent buildings, and often fail to put in them men of power. Benefactors prefer to erect buildings rather than to pay teachers. And in school work we photograph the log schoolhouse and tear it down for a new and handsome frame or brick building, but we put the same teacher into the new and leave him to his same pernicious routine of unfruitful labors. This is not sound policy, either from an educational or business standpoint. It would be poor policy in a railroad company to expend large sums on roadbed, engines and handsome rolling stock, while they leave trains to be run by brakemen instead of trained engineers. It would be poor policy for a city to deepen its harbors, erect light-houses, build great ocean steamers, and leave ignorant pilots to guide them into the breakers and dash the treasures of freight and passengers on the rocks.

There are in this country about half a million teachers employed in public schools. Is it too much to say that a large proportion of them are unfit for this responsible position? If I were afraid to say so, I could easily quote to this effect statements made in every section by leaders in every department of educational work. Go to the office of any state superintendent and read the letters received from his teachers; look over the examination papers on which certificates are granted; go to the county institutes and work with the teachers present, remembering that the best are present, while the most inefficient stay away. It is not necessary to go into details here. It would be easy to wing my words with sarcasm or ridicule, but I forbear. I am speaking of my brothers and sisters, my colleagues in a great calling, and there is occasion for tears rather than laughter. Two years ago at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Mr. Frank L. Jones, superintendent of education for the state of Indiana, presented these figures based on information secured concerning 20,662 teachers in ten states. These ten states were: Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, Illinois and Iowa. Of these 20,662 teachers, 2,450 were teaching

without previous experience, 4,880 had only a common school education, and 8,600 had not studied beyond the high school. If this state of affairs exists in the states whose system of public schools is held up to us as a model, what would the records of the Southern states show? In my own state of Tennessee out of 9,396 certificates issued in 1900, 7,086 were third grade, and few, if any, of these teachers had had any instruction in school methods. This is a typical instance of Southern conditions. What can be done to remedy this state of affairs? One view often expressed is that this matter will settle itself as soon as longer school terms and better pay are provided. But the president of the Conference for Education in the South, in his annual address one year ago, asked this question: "If millions of money were ready, where are the teachers? Is there not here a new question for pedagogy to solve?" Our great educational revival will bring us longer terms. About this there can be no doubt. The writing on the wall is plain and cannot be misinterpreted. This change will come more rapidly than some of us have dared to hope, but will we have an improved order of teachers ready to meet the new conditions? This inquiry we can certainly answer in the negative unless we begin now to make preparation. This problem is worthy the most serious thought at the present time, and calls for more active efforts than have hitherto been put forth. There are two points to be considered here: one is, to improve the supply of teachers we now have; the other, to get ready a new and better trained supply to take their places. The first task can only be accomplished in ways somewhat irregular. There is no process by which the teacher can be born again or be made to begin over again, but by county and state institutes, by reading circles, by correspondence courses, and by summer schools great improvement can be brought about in a condition well-nigh intolerable. The pressure of school officials, county and state, can aid much in this work. But let us not overrate these means of grace. They are only palliative, not radically curative. More permanent results will be secured by the establishment of normal schools and by the improvement of those already existing. Even high schools can give normal courses to prospective teachers, and our colleges and universities should lend their assistance by establishing chairs of pedagogy and providing practical as well as theoretical work along this line. We have not yet begun to take hold of this question seriously

in the South. Some things already done must be *undone*,—some institutions using the name of normal schools, normal colleges and normal universities must be banished from the list of reputable institutions and forced to close their doors or mend their ways,—and all of us must try to do better and reach higher standards than those already attained.

This work belongs primarily to the state, and the state alone is able to carry it out. It is of as great importance to the state as the training of sailors and soldiers, and the licensing of teachers should be as carefully guarded as the licensing of lawyers and doctors. The Greek word for state has given us two words that indicate two spheres of activity—unfortunately, neither of them the highest: one is *police* and the other *politician*. One of these indicates that part of state activity that belongs to ourselves; the other that part which we apply to our neighbors. But we are not willing to admit that the supreme function of the state is to be found in the struggle to rule, whether of individuals or of parties, nor yet in the restraint of open violence or crime. No doubt the protection of life and property is one of the first duties of organized society, but even this task cannot be successfully performed by the soldier or policeman. Property is lost not through robbery alone; life is endangered in other ways than by violence. Ignorance is the great destroyer of property and of life. A few microbes cause more loss of life in one year than there have been homicides in a century; a half dozen insects will inflict greater financial loss in the coming summer than robbers have occasioned in a generation. Even put on the lowest plane and expressed in the fewest terms, the duties and obligations of the state move out irresistibly into the field of education. No state has ever been truly great whose rule was merely that of the sword. Tamerlane conquered a kingdom greater than Rome's in the time of Trajan, but it passed away as a pebble dropped into the sea. The power that endures is not that of the sword, but of the spirit: the state must build its enduring habitations, not in the slaves over which it rules, but in the lives of its citizens whom it raises to be a race of kings. To do this, attention must be given to the development of a complete educational system. The state cannot rely on outside agencies. The home is the first school, but the state cannot be satisfied with that. The pulpit and the press are educative in their influence, but the state cannot be content with these. Self-interest or

associated effort may arouse certain activities and call forth institutions erroneously called private schools, private academies, or private universities. To all of these the state should lend a sympathetic support, for they are all doing the work of the state, but it may not allow the great cause of education to rest here. Beyond all this the state must go, recognizing its obligations to every child, seeing in every life the possibility of a Divine incarnation, and finding in the up-lift of the individual and the social whole, its most glorious privilege and most urgent duty.

This is the work to which the teacher must largely contribute, and for these duties he must be prepared. It is not merely a question of money. The whole profession must be elevated. The teaching profession inherits disabilities. We take our name from the slave that led the child to school, and often the teacher himself has been a slave. Slowly through the ages he has pulled himself up, and even yet he bears the mark of inferior service and feels the sting of social reproach. Read the multitude of confessions brought together in a late number of the *World's Work* and see if I do not speak the truth. The old "Town Book" gives the following as the duties of the schoolmaster in early New England: "1. To act as court messenger. 2. To serve summonses. 3. To conduct certain ceremonial services of the Church. 4. To lead the Sunday school. 5. To ring the bell for public worship. 6. To dig the graves. 7. To take charge of the school. 8. To perform other occasional duties." A somewhat more graphic description of the diversified labors of the early teacher in rural districts may be found in the following advertisement of a "Parson's Clerk," whose services were rendered in the famous Lake District of England. The undersigned "reforms ladies and gentlemen that he draws teeth witout waiting a moment, blisters on the lowest terms and fysicks at a penny. Sells God-father's cordial, cuts corns, and undertakes to keep anybody's nails by the year or so on. Young lades and gentelmen tort their grammer language in the neatest possible manner; also great care taken of their morals and spellin. I teeches joggrefy and all them outlandish things." This was the same clerk who was said to have given the following notice to the assembled congregation: "There'll be nae service in this church for m' appon a matter o' fower weeks, as parson's hen is sitting in t' pulpit."

In contrast with this, let us take the statement of Plato, who

says in regard to the minister of education that "of all the great offices of state, this is the greatest. He should be elected who, of all the citizens, is in every respect the best." To the teacher society entrusts its highest interests. The true teacher is the high priest of humanity; he is to childhood the interpreter of God and nature, he saves each generation from savagery, he gives the child his inheritance in all the achievements of the human race, he voices the wisdom of the past and the prophecies of the future. To this work he should come with a fullness of knowledge, for he bears the riches of God's universe; with skill in method, for he handles not implements of stone and wood, but human minds and hearts; with the life-giving power of a great soul, that vitalizes all it touches and pours itself out with the largess of divinity, for only thus can he quicken the soul of man.

THE CONCENTRATION OF SCHOOLS AND TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS

By MR. G. P. GLENN, Superintendent of Schools, Jacksonville, Florida

An up-to-date educational journal wisely suggests that the social philosophers who are seeking an explanation for the rush of the rural population to the city should turn their eyes upon the district school. It is undoubtedly one of the overlooked causes.

Thousands of country people sell or rent their farms and go into town in order to give their children educational advantages which they cannot have in the country schools as they are at present conducted.

The pronounced educational advantages of the city are irresistibly attractive to the enterprising American, who always believes in the efficacy of education. If the schools of the city are to remain so incomparably better than those of the country, the exodus of the farmers to the city will continue.

A generation ago this incomparable difference did not exist, neither did there then exist a well-developed art of teaching, such as we see applied in our city schools to-day, but not in our rural schools. This is a second difference quite adequate to cause the first.

As a verification of this cause, we find the art of learning very generally well developed among pupils of city schools, while it is displayed in rural schools by only a few—a few mental giants of whom Cicero, in his comments on the genius of nature and the genius of industry, says: "Something marvelous may be expected from the youth who has both." These rare combinations of genius, in the past, have performed the wonderful feat of capturing the art of learning, despite the adverse conditions of the rural school. Unfortunately, they do not represent the masses of country school-children. Dr. Hinsdale says: "One of the most valuable arts that a boy or girl, a young man or young woman, can learn is the art of study." Jefferson Davis, in a letter to a Mississippi teacher, has incidentally left us the following excellently worded pedagogic thought: "The art of learning and the endowment to teach must both be developed in youth."

If then we note correctly that this all-important art of study or art of learning is quite apparent among pupils of the city school, but generally dormant among pupils of rural schools, we have discovered adequate cause for the incomparable excellence of the city school, and we who have charge of rural education should hasten to engraft that cause into the country schools with all possible speed.

Much of the inferiority of the country school is due to the county superintendent. He should have long ago discovered that the application and the very existence of the art of teaching has been possible in the city school, because of its peculiar organization, and impossible in the rural school because of its peculiar lack of organization. He ought to have had the professional sagacity to note that this lack of organization was due to his own delinquency. Added to such discernment and sagacity, he should have had force of character sufficient to abandon the old rural system for something better. During the last decade nearly all the Northern states, from Maine and Massachusetts through to Minnesota, have adopted, to some extent, the plan of centralizing rural schools as a means of improving them.

Massachusetts was the pioneer by many years and has very definite legislation upon the subject. Pennsylvania newspapers are filled with enthusiasm over the prospect of an early state management of the new system. Ohio has long since carried her Kingsville centralized school far beyond the pale of experiment, and has brought it into national repute. Indiana and Illinois superintendents are making pilgrimages to Ohio's Mecca, the school at Kingsville, to inspect its mode of operating, while Wisconsin and Mississippi and North Carolina write to Florida seeking our experience and method of transporation in Duval County, in connection with our centralization of rural schools during the last six years.

In this county six years ago there were forty-five rural schools of one teacher each, for white children, established by former administrations. The work of these schools was so unsatisfactory in general, and the per capita of expense ran so high in many of them, that the present administration determined to reduce the number to fifteen schools of three teachers each.

A statutory clause of the state provides that school children

must not be required to walk to school more than one mile and a half. Hence, in choosing the sites for the centralized schools, the one having the greatest number of children within a radius of one mile and a half has generally been chosen. Seven of these schools are now in operation, each accommodating the children of about sixty to one hundred square miles of territory. Others will be established as rapidly as funds will permit.

The concentration of the children who live more than one mile and a half from these new schools is accomplished by means of wagonettes, specially designed for the purpose, and provided by the Board of Public Instruction at the public expense. They are of such capacity as to carry eight, ten, twelve, fourteen, sixteen, eighteen and twenty pupils, respectively, and cost from seventy to one hundred dollars each. Last year twenty-seven of these comfortable vehicles were running at an average cost of \$23.33 1-3. These twenty-seven conveyances enabled us to close twenty-four of the old one-teacher schools, the current cost of which had previously been forty-five dollars and fifty cents per month for each. Hence, our transportation system now in operation produces a current saving of four hundred and sixty-two dollars per month over the old method. This gross saving was reduced by two hundred and twenty-five dollars, the increase in salaries for assistant teachers at the centralized schools, and there was still left a net saving of two hundred and thirty-seven dollars per month. During a single term of eight months this net saving amounts almost to the entire cost of the twenty-seven wagons, and, since the life of a well-made wagon is about five years, four-fifths of this saving can be devoted to the extension of the new system and to better facilities for teaching. Therefore, even in a financial way, centralization in Duval County, Florida, is a decided success.

Professionally there seems to be nothing objectionable, and of the many advantages the following are the more important:

1. The teachers' work is so well organized that the average recitation period is doubled.
2. The effort of the teacher is made more effective by means of a more adequate equipment.
3. Truancy is wholly eliminated. The health of the pupils is preserved against bad weather and worse roads, but especially from the impure drinking water of former days.

4. Many children, formerly so isolated as never to have access to any school, are now accommodated, to the advantage of the system financially.

5. Local prejudice and family feuds are so completely submerged that one or two large families cannot freeze out the teacher.

6. As a sequence to all these favorable conditions, the average attendance is increased 12 1-2 per cent, giving a corresponding increase of school funds from the state.

7. The country maiden may, and does, continue her education, even into the appreciative days of womanhood, without fear of molestation by the ubiquitous tramp or other vagabond.

8. The youth prolongs his school days to the ambitious verging into manhood, because his aspirations for intellectual progress have been encouraged—he has been given time and opportunity to think and to talk.

9. The farmer and his family are becoming more content with their independent, self-sustaining occupation, preferring to have their children educated in these efficient rural schools, where, during the character-forming period of youth, ethical culture is free from the dissipations of social life as manifested in our cities.

10. The development of the art of teaching by young aspirants is more feasible to the superintendent. His efforts at supervision are more frequent and more effective. On his rounds of duty, and at sight of the old, abandoned school-houses, he thinks of Whittier's lines:

"Still sits the school-house by the road,
A ragged beggar, sunning."

Simply sunning, each a moss-covered monument, befitting the raggedest, most beggarly system of rural education ever devised by man, and an appropriate epitaph on each would be, "Now departed, but not lamented."

THE UNIVERSITY IN THE SOUTH

By PROFESSOR EDWIN MIMS, of Trinity College, Durham, N. C.

Many Southern people, even leaders in educational work, are ignorant of the men and movements connected with the solution of these problems, while Northern men are as ignorant of them as they are of many other phases of Southern life. A fight just as difficult, just as strenuous, as that in favor of elementary rural education is now being waged by other leaders in behalf of higher standards of admission and graduation and increased endowments and equipments. No one who has been at the heart of this movement for universal education can fail to be in deepest sympathy with it, but unless the leaders of higher education are just as enthusiastic and wise and patient as the members of the Southern Education Board, they will leave very pressing problems unsolved. The rebuilding of old commonwealths is to go on not only in the rural schools, but in the libraries, laboratories and lecture rooms of Southern colleges and universities.

The organization to which has been entrusted the working out of many of the problems of colleges and secondary schools is the Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, organized in Atlanta in 1895. Realizing that the South has suffered from a lack of a properly correlated educational system, the members of this organization have endeavored to define more accurately the work of school, college and university. To that end they have insisted on definite and rigidly enforced requirements for admission and graduation—requirements approximating those that now prevail in the best Northern institutions. This association has had to work in the face of strong opposition on the part of not only colleges of low rank, but colleges and universities that have comparatively large endowments and equipments, but have not developed an educational conscience with regard either to admission or graduation. College presidents, instead of being educational experts, thoroughly familiar with the most recent educational progress, have thought that enthusiasm for the masses might atone for the serious neglect of the more technical, but none the less important, phases of higher education.

That this movement is to-day as successful as it is, is due primarily to the untiring patience and wisdom of Chancellor Kirkland of Vanderbilt University, who for ten years in his own institution and among the other institutions of the South has stood for the highest ideals of educational work. He and others like him have appropriated the best results attained in other sections of the country by similar organizations.

Public sentiment is growing in the South in the direction of an insistence on the demands made of a modern well-equipped college. Men are beginning to see that endowments and libraries and laboratories are absolutely essential for the development of scholarly work, and are endeavoring to thwart those institutions of learning that have perpetrated frauds upon the public in the name of education. I have often regretted that Garfield said what he did about Mark Hopkins and the log, for the remark has done valiant service in the South and West for the maintenance of colleges and universities which had no right by the common standards of honesty to exist. The members of the Southern Education Board have turned the light of publicity upon the country schools; men are also turning the light on colleges, and finding that many of them are unworthy of the names they bear. The cry of consolidation of schools has been raised; we need also to work towards the consolidation or abolition of colleges. Let us not in our efforts to secure the adoption of local taxation as a fundamental principle of American democracy forget to urge upon state legislatures the prime necessity of allowing state institutions the best possible chance for the pursuit of scholarly ends, nor in our enthusiasm over the recent remarkable gifts for school purposes fail to appreciate the men, some of them Southerners, who are making possible the endowment of colleges and the proper equipment of libraries and laboratories. There are fewer people in the South than ever before who believe that because North Carolina or Ohio has more colleges than Massachusetts, they are for that reason the more fortunate.

Out of this demand for proper educational standards and facilities is coming a new sense of the dignity and worth of scholarship. When the University of Virginia was organized, Thomas Jefferson induced five English scholars to become members of its faculty because of the lack of scholars in this country. The time has been in the South when there was almost a necessity for Northern men

to fill chairs of instruction, but in recent years more and more Southern men of first-rate talent have been preparing themselves in the best universities of this country and of Europe for the highest grade of work. A few years ago a good many of these brighter men went to Northern institutions, where they might have larger resources with which to work, but now, as endowments and libraries and laboratories are increasing, a constantly increasing number of them are not only content but eager to work in Southern institutions, because they see here an opportunity of doing permanent work in the rejuvenation and reconstruction of Southern life. Their names are not known by many people, they are not in the public eye, but within the next decade the achievements of this band of scholars who are working in the name of truth for the widening of the horizons of human knowledge will be seen.

With the advance of scholarship in the South, and with the scholar's recognition of his place in a democratic order, there have come and will come more and more freedom of thought and freedom of speech. Scholars—an increasing number, let us hope—are bringing to bear upon Southern life the influence of modern ideas and insisting on open-mindedness and cosmopolitanism as the prime virtues of a progressive people. Teachers of literature are bringing young men into a larger world of thought—"an ampler ether, a diviner air"—striving to put them in touch with the best revelations of genius and the artistic record of their race. Teachers of history, with scientific accuracy and yet a vital feeling for the past, are bringing to us the experience of the world as a guide for our future life, and are writing the history of this section, not according to the demands of sentiment, but with the accuracy of truth. Teachers of political and social science are giving due interpretation to the new industrial order now so manifest, and are bringing to the new social problems engendered thereby the best results of the experiences of England and the North. Teachers of science—technical and theoretical—are making us familiar with scientific principles and methods, and are bringing into our thought those truths that have revolutionized modern philosophy. Teachers of Biblical literature, loyal to the essential truth of the old faith, are yet brave enough to accept truth from whatever source it may come and to abide by the truth wherever it may lead.

Such scholars cannot do their work without exciting opposition

and prejudice. The question of academic freedom is a live question here, as elsewhere in the country. More than many have realized, freedom of speech has won its place in the best Southern institutions. Professor Trent was attacked severely by some Southern newspapers and public men for his life of William Gilmore Simms and his "Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime," but the University of the South was thoroughly loyal to him, while men in other institutions rallied about him. Professor Houston was attacked for certain opinions on the money question, but he is to-day at the head of a leading institution in Texas, and highly honored throughout the South. The recent forced resignation of Professor Sledd would not have taken place in some Southern institutions with which I am familiar, whose faculties unhesitatingly condemned the action of the Emory College trustees. A book containing the addresses of a dozen of the most prominent presidents and professors of Southern colleges would be a surprise to the academic circles of the North that have not watched closely the development of the most recent phases of Southern life. The *Sewanee Review* (published at the University of the South), that has just completed ten years' successful history, and the *South Atlantic Quarterly* (published at Trinity College), now in its second year, have given notable expressions to the most thoughtful opinions of Southern scholars.

While giving due attention to these unmistakable evidences of increasing freedom and cosmopolitanism, I would not minimize the struggle yet to be made before they shall be generally recognized and established. Unfortunately, many leaders of educational work are flatterers, rather than leaders, of the people, and so stand in the way of genuine progress. I have heard more than one president of prominent Southern institutions make light of men who were independent in their thought and free in their utterance. Tradition, conservatism, bigotry, prejudice, here as elsewhere, must stand in the way of the children of light. The independent in politics, the liberal in religion, will have no easy time. In the South, least of all, should the scholar be dumb, or the institution of learning hide its light under a bushel. The Southern college needs to become a more vital factor in the life of the people; not timid or overcautious, but brave, even as those who love truth and are the friends of progress. You cannot write the history of modern Germany without recording the heroic work of German scholars. The story of the renaissance

of New England is but half told when Harvard College is omitted. In the industrial, educational and intellectual progress of the South-ern states the colleges that will deserve most consideration from the future historian are those that will at the present time become the leaders and the inspirers of the people.

If we shall meet all Southern problems and national problems with the same spirit that has characterized the Annual Conference for Education in the South, if we can bring to them the same national spirit, the same magnanimity, the same open-mindedness, we shall see the coming of a great day in Southern life. No one can have too high a hope of what may be achieved within the next quarter of a century. Freed from the limitations that have so long hampered us, and buoyant with the energy of a new life coursing through our veins, we shall press forward to the destiny that awaits us. If, to the sentiment, the chivalry, and the hospitality that have characterized Southern life, shall be added the intellectual keenness, the spiritual sensitiveness, and the enlarged freedom of the modern world, the time is not far off when scholarship, literature, and art shall flourish among us, and when all things that make for the intellectual and spiritual emancipation of man shall find their fit home here.

NEEDS OF THE NEW SOUTH

By DR. LYMAN HALL, President of Georgia Institute of Technology,
Atlanta, Ga.

A prominent American said not long ago that a dollar was the most productive thing in the world. It is needless to say that he was a disciple of that doctrine which has given the dollar an adjective applied to only the King of kings, the *almighty* dollar, "greater than all things visible and invisible," immeasurable in quantity of results, infinite in accomplishment. But there is a fatal defect in the omnipotence of the dollar. It is material, and being material it is subject to the physical law of material things, action and reaction. The dollar on the stock exchange which makes a fortune to-day for Mr. Smith loses the same fortune for Mr. Jones, and when the sun goes down, there is no increase in assets. The happiness on the credit side of the exchange is offset by the misery on the debit side.

The most productive thing in the world, in fact, is not a dollar, or two dollars, or a million dollars; but it is something which is not material, it is the germ of that power which moves ships and trains, navies and armies, which builds empires and populates continents where formerly reigned only desolation and savage beasts and men; it is something which gives no promise in appearance of its possibilities, but it is alive and bristling with energy and horsepower; *it is a boy, and above all an American boy.*

In this connection it is well to come to the point of my subject and emphasize the needs of the New South. The New South? Why so called? Fifteen years ago a machine shop and foundry between Georgia and Alabama could not secure workmen or apprentices at more than living wages. The proprietor sent his son to the School of Technology in Atlanta, the young man went home, donned his overalls, and went to work in his father's shop. Since that time he has been able to employ any boy in the county at fifty cents a day. That county was regenerated in its ideas.

Twenty-five years ago it was impossible for a young man to wear overalls in the day and a dress suit in the evening. No such

false pride exists to-day. It is the desire of 100,000 young men in the South to become workers in mines, in factories, in mills. They realize the boundless resources of their section and are filled with ambition to perform great deeds in industry and progress. These facts give the cause for the name "New South."

The vast manufacturing interests of our cities, the application of scientific principles, the establishment of great power plants, the working of mines, the development of every natural resource with mechanical appliances, demand men—staunch, sturdy, powerful, workingmen—men who not only have the strength to do, but have the intelligence and training to do what is wisest and best.

Have we such men? No. Have we the facilities for training such men? No. These answers come from the shops, mills, power plants, and manufactories which are rising like magic in every Southern state. The future with its increasing markets, its tropical trade, its Panama Canal, its demand for manufactured articles from every shore touched by the waters of the Pacific, gives prophecy of still greater demands. Are the colleges and schools in the South adequately responding to the demand for such men? Not at all. In my state we are making ten professional men—lawyers, doctors, authors, teachers, statesmen if you will—where we are making one technically trained expert.

Not one blemish would I place on the fair names and splendid work of those universities and classical schools which are cherished in every state in the Southland, and from whose walls have come men renowned at home and abroad. But I would say to them, turn some of your influence and force towards the supplying of a great demand which we cannot meet. Such a course would not reflect upon your dignity nor tarnish your prestige. An eminent German scientist, on being asked how he would establish a great university, replied: "If I had sufficient means, I would equip some laboratories; if the money held out, I would erect some buildings; if there was still some money left, I would employ some professors."

The greatest boon which could come to the South to-day would be the establishment of shops and laboratories in every school and college from Pennsylvania to New Mexico. Even then the supply would not begin to approach the demand. During the month of April I have had at least ten applications for young men who knew something about boilers, or electricity, or mills. Three applications

came in one day for draughtsmen, at almost any price. To take a specimen application, the writer of which has evidently tried in vain for what he wants:

"DEAR SIR:—I am looking for a technical graduate to make himself generally useful to me, chiefly in experimental work and patent drawings. I really want to put him into training to become our factory superintendent, but it is probably not best to tell him so at first. Pay will be \$100.00 per month to start, but the specifications are not exacting. I want my man to know a lot of things. He must know how to get along with employees. He must have a natural inborn tendency to order, system and discipline, and he must have that mysterious quality 'accomplishfulness.' The ability to get through with work. The habit of despatch. He must also furnish his own 'push,' his own E. M. F. There are a good many men who are like Josiah Allen's dog. He said the dog was all right to chase cows, if you only ran on a little ahead to encourage him. This is not the kind of a dog or man I want. I *really* want (but do not expect to find him this side of St. Peter) a man who will run on ahead and encourage *me*. I believe in heredity, too, and I want the son of a mechanic. A young fellow who has been brought up in the brass belt of Connecticut would do. We are going into several new lines. Responsibility will come as fast as the young man can digest it, probably faster. Can you recommend anybody as approximating the specifications?"

The fact, then, needs no demonstration, that the facilities for turning out engineers, technical experts, etc., are inadequate. The remedy is the establishment of courses in engineering in every college, in every university. Yes, do more than establish the course, advertise it; make it as popular with the undergraduate as the classics. I have known of a college, having three hundred students, giving courses to two students in agriculture and a dozen in engineering. In such cases something is the matter with the engineering and agriculture, or, perhaps, with a false sentiment existing against them, the students are not to blame for such a condition. This would be a great advance in the higher education mostly needed in this section, and would be accelerated with experience.

But this would benefit the college boy only; it would not have an influence on the great majority of boys who are here now and who will continue to come, an innumerable host, eager to learn, willing to work, provided for in the common schools only, then brought face to face with the fact that many of us have had to face desperately, namely, self-preservation, or making a living.

It is almost an axiom that the boy who is poor to-day will be the influential factor in affairs of every description twenty-five years

in the future. If he has that advantage from his environment without opportunity, how much greater will be his advantage with ample opportunity? There will be more of him, more in him.

There should be established in every congressional district in the South a trade school for the practical instruction of boys from 14 to 18 years of age, in the ordinary trades and the particular arts and industries which flourish in his section. Such schools would be almost, if not quite, self-supporting, from the natural output of products. From such schools would pour a continuous stream of skilled workmen and artisans, in all the arts and trades, who could demand a minimum wage of \$2.50 per day. The fields of light employment offer little or no inducement. Women have come forward as assistants and employes in every branch of business, at a smaller salary than married men can afford to work for. And the boy of seventeen who cannot go to college or technical school, who has had no training for special work, is forced into the field of unskilled labor, and only the select may obtain employment on the street railways, the police force, and the fire department, at much smaller wages than the skilled workmen can command.

The trade schools should come quickly and must come. It will be an innovation with us. I do not believe there is a school in the South where a white boy can learn bricklaying, or plumbing, furniture making, or practical manufacturing in wood and metal, and clay, on a practical commercial basis. Our technical schools are sending out a few leaders—superintendents, scientists—who are not to form the rank and file of skilled labor. But the colored race is meeting this problem with abundant means, had for the asking. Their industrial schools are making skilled workmen who command good wages, and who are turned from employment by no false sentiment, by no prejudice. These schools are increasing in number and size. When the colored race all become skilled bricklayers, somebody will have to carry the mortar. When they all become plumbers, who are going to be the helpers, the men who carry the tools? When they become scientific farmers, who are going to be the laborers? We Southerners, we Southern whites? No. We have settled that question long ago, but, unless we have trade and industrial schools, our boys will have to carry the mortar for somebody, even if they have to emigrate to do it.

But I make no prophecy of ill-omen. Pointing at the spectre

does not imply embracing it or acknowledging its supremacy. The Southern people will, I feel sure, meet the issues which are forced upon them. They will provide for their sons in due season. And while some philanthropy fails to find its way here, unless there is something to give color to the question, our state government, our legislatures (and the General Education Board seems to be following the pathway blazed by our own people), bestowing benefits upon the white boy of the South, and at the same time lending a helping hand to the weaker race, will surely prepare means for their own sons for the preservation of the prestige of their inheritance, for the great destiny which beckons them to prepare for future conflicts in commerce, in science, in skill, and in art, with the greatest nations of the earth.

THE CONFERENCE FOR EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

By the President of the Conference, ROBERT C. OGDEN, New York City

Originally, membership in the Conference for Education in the South was limited to the list of guests invited to share the hospitality of Captain Sale, at Capon Springs, West Virginia. The only present qualifications needed by a delegate consist in personal presence and sympathetic accord. Thus the Conference is a purely voluntary association. It has had a healthful and continuous growth without a constitution, and has thus proven its ideal nature, human temper and intellectual quality. It has illustrated the possibilities of the brotherhood of man by electing executive officers and committees with no by-laws to restrict, with perfect freedom for unlimited overwork, and the right—by appeals to altruism, to patriotism, or fear—to impress into the service of the Conference all whose assistance may be required.

By this gentle brigandage the Conference has lived and moved and had its being. Cordially appropriating the generous hospitality of locality after locality, piling boundless cares upon local committees, placing upon its chief officers responsibilities broad as the tenderness of conscience or capacity for initiative; trusting as the birds trust the hand that providentially feeds them, a treasurer without an exchequer; appropriating for the use of the executive committee the whole American republic of letters that a proper program should annually be presented—the Conference has gone forward from grace to grace, and from strength to strength.

Quite likely the inorganic character of the Conference has inspired the expression of doubt concerning its serious purpose. Intimations have not been wanting that it is only a junketing affair, a sort of fad which the imaginations of certain very good people have translated into a supposed vitality and force, a solemn fancy that affords a sober excuse for an affair primarily social, incidentally educational. Suggestions of this nature originate quite beyond the circle that have personal knowledge of the facts. Certainly the social environment of the successive meetings has been important and useful, as it has been delightful, yet it is completely subordinate and incidental.

Nevertheless, the inquiry is legitimate: "What is the theory of the Conference?" The reply is clear and sharply defined: "The Conference exists for the advancement and promotion of the education of all the people." A brief analysis of the elements of the Conference may clarify this answer.

All are perfectly familiar with the sovereign demands—material, intellectual, spiritual—of educational interests. Executive combinations of many sorts—land, buildings, taxation, legislation, systems, methods—are under requisition for the service. Its infinite details increasingly enlist the unremitting toil of hundreds of thousands of painstaking teachers, men and women, representing every grade of instruction from the simplest to the most abstruse.

For the moment, in the centre and foreground of this vast perspective, stands the Conference—a composite aggregation of men and women, interesting because so varied in its personnel.

Some are profoundly ignorant of the technicalities of education, quite unfamiliar by personal knowledge with even the recitation rooms or the methods of contemporary school life. Others are within the sacred fraternity of teachers, and in the group may be found representatives of every rank in the teaching profession. Still others are charged with the official responsibility of educational management on behalf of the state or corporate bodies. But all are with one accord in one place—officials and citizens, professionals and laity—by reason of a common belief in the beneficent power of education, and because each distinct element is essential to the spirit that must vitalize the Conference.

So much for the personnel.

The solvent, the fusing power that creates the common point of contact, is the belief, perceived in varying degrees by all present, that the great social duty of our age is the saving of society and, further, that the salvation of society begins with the saving of the child. Without faith in the moral progress of the world we are hopeless indeed. This progress begins with the little child, and therefore, in a very liberal sense, we are to-day under the leadership of childhood. From the kindergarten of to-day to the university of to-morrow is, as the years go by, a very short step.

At this time no apology is needed for the claims that the saving of society, the progressive betterment of humanity, is demanded by Divine authority, manifested through the living pur-

pose clearly revealed in Holy Writ, providential guidance and human consciousness. Neither should excuse be asked for insistence that a clear, definite and exacting special demand is made upon every man and woman for personal service—self-sacrificing, devoted—in all things having to do with the creation and promotion of human knowledge as a means of human happiness.

So much for the moral inspiration of the Conference.

Continuing the inquiry a step further, we notice that, from the foundation of our government until now, ringing out with true tone and clarion voice, rising resonant and distinct above the clamor of politics—above the loud barking of the dogs of war, above the harsh controversies concerning the nature of the national federation, above the strident debates upon the ethics of domestic institutions—the note of democracy in catholic unison has ever resounded dominant and universal. Democracy is a national intuition, the fundamental political doctrine of every American worthy of the name, the sacred trust confided to our care and keeping, to be preserved for the healing of the nations through a complete demonstration of its truth upon American soil. Thus, in a very special way, our political institutions unfold an inspired mission that deeply concerns the moral progress of the world. Thus the state should become the universal missionary of a political gospel both at home and abroad.

But a true democracy can only exist through the fidelity of its citizens. Individualism—cynical, selfish, cold and indifferent—cries out: "Am I my brother's keeper?" "Who is my neighbor?" A true democracy quickly echoes back: "Thy brother is he that hath need of thee." "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself."

There is a divinity in democracy; in society as in the individual there is personal and organic spiritual life. Witness the restless longing for social service that marks the serious side of present-day life in America. So much for the patriotic inspiration of the Conference.

And thus it has come about that this varied collection of men and women, moved by ethical and patriotic incentives, have come from remote localities that they may be mutually instructed and inspired in a conference based upon the common belief that the general education of all the people is essential to the salvation of society; that without general education, progress in the arts, in

the diffusion of happiness, in the things that make for good character, family peace, clean living, human brotherhood, civic righteousness and national justice is impossible. In the atmosphere of a common human sympathy the Conference for Education in the South lives and moves and has its being.

The concrete reply concerning the theory of the Conference is short and simple. It is a diminutive spiritual democracy—a sympathetic association of those who believe in the civic and constructive value of the policy of universal education. It exists for the cultivation of the higher inspiration that underlies all social development. It firmly believes that successful practical effort is the product of sound ethics.

And yet the Conference is not a transcendental body, existing in the assumed superiority of a self-created atmosphere of indefinite and mysterious supremacy. Therefore, as action is the expression of doctrine, as methods are the formulæ of beliefs, so the discussion of practical educational questions naturally affords the means for the cultivation of the true ideal of the Conference.

The province of pedagogy has rarely been touched, never invaded, by the proceedings of the Conference. That great and important side of educational progress is too technical and detailed for the time at command, and, belonging to the strictly professional side of educational administration, could not be profitably considered in a body so generally representative as the Conference. It is therefore naturally eliminated.

There is, however, a vast sphere in which the Conference may now, and for long years to come, find ample scope for thought and discussion.

Legislative action has expressed the will of the people upon many topics that need larger light, public opinion as yet unexpressed in law lengthens the schedule, and individual minds find still other questions in education that may well challenge the consideration of philanthropists, philosophers and statesmen. These fertile sources have supplied the program that the executive committee presents for the guidance of the deliberations.

The absolute need of universal education has the endorsement of the law of each of the United States of America and the conscientious allegiance of all intelligent citizens.

Local taxation for education has the sanction of law in many

states. Negro education is recognized as a part of the public educational system in every state, both South and North. The education of every child in our country is an admitted national duty, and leading minds find in this principle broad ground for a demand that the national government should share with the several states, in proportion to the need, the financial responsibility involved in the discharge of that obligation. The moral accountability of the higher institutions of learning to the cause of popular public education, and the economic value of education to material progress, are great subjects that have the affirmative approval of the highest intelligence.

Within the limitation of its orderly program the Conference is an open forum. Reasoning from previous practice, its function is inspiration by discussion rather than decision. Resolutions have never been its vogue. Its conclusions have been enshrined in individual thought and not voiced in the vote of a majority.

This natural practice is a direct evolution from the underlying circumstances that made the Conference possible. It is deeply interesting to note in this connection that the originators of the Conference did not know the extent of the forces with which they were dealing, nor the greatness of the power they were calling into being. The one all-controlling fact before the minds of the fathers of the Conference was the appalling need of an educational awakening in the rural South. Who that heard will ever forget the graphic utterances of Dr. Curry and President Wilson, of Washington and Lee University, in which, with words hot from well-furnished minds and glowing hearts, they reviewed the causes of educational backwardness and pictured the then existing need? Later there came the comprehensive statistical and descriptive addresses and papers presented to the Conference by members of the Southern Education Board, that gave cumulative testimony to prevailing conditions and needs. So earnest and drastic were these utterances that it would seem ungracious to repeat them now. But the impassioned expressions of these leaders voiced the longing, anxious appeal of many earnest and intelligent men and women that, in the seclusion of remote, obscure and wide-lying communities, had pondered upon the way to improve educational conditions and prayed long and earnestly for the means of relief. A vast amount of the seed of the Kingdom was growing secretly. These were the conditions that awaited the coming of the Conference. At the

beginning it touched only a few of these faithful souls, but now, by its direct action and by other agencies that its spirit has called into being, the fellowship is increasing and bringing forth abundant fruit.

The intrusion of disagreement into a domain of thought and sentiment so vast and so sacred would seem to be sacrilege. Thus the natural life of the Conference has been that of unity and agreement. The standing ground of common need is so broad, the truly vital point so evident and so eminent, as to forbid discussion; points of difference are so minor and inconsequent that perfect accord has been natural—any other condition would be contradictory to the best humanity here in conference assembled.

It is fundamentally impossible to hold the Southern Education Board and the General Education Board officially responsible for this Conference. In a full and complete sense they are only accountable to the donors of the money by which they are supported. In a very broad and positive sense they are responsible for their action to intelligent public opinion. In a sentimental and sympathetic sense they are so interesting to the Conference that this discussion demands reference to them, and the paper would be incomplete without some account of their doings. And yet it should be positively understood and insisted upon, until the interested public comes fully to understand, that the Conference and the boards are absolutely and entirely distinct.

The Southern Education Board carries on a crusade for education. Its organization is comprehensive and actively covers the larger part of the country from the Potomac to the Rio Grande, from the Ohio to the Gulf. Its large expenses are privately defrayed. The General Education Board administers such funds as may come to it for the assistance of education. In this connection they cannot be considered separately—their work is a unit; they are the halves of a complete sphere; they are interdependent, subjectively and objectively. Seven men are members in both boards.

At the office of the General Education Board in New York, under the direction of Dr. Buttrick, a vast amount of information is being accumulated and tabulated concerning schools and educational institutions in the various states covered by the operations of the boards. From the bureau of information, under the direc-

tion of Dr. Dabney, at Knoxville, Tennessee, a great mass of popular and statistical literature has been circulated to the newspaper press and to individuals. Assistance has been extended to various schools and institutions, divided nearly equally between the races. Various summer schools for teachers have been encouraged and assisted, none entirely supported. Certain counties in several states have been encouraged to improve the public schools by subscription and local taxation, by the duplication of funds thus raised by the General Education Board. These experiments display the possibilities of self-help. State conferences of county superintendents of education have been held, with highly satisfactory results, in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, Florida and Louisiana. Others will follow, and probably the usefulness of the system will warrant its continuance.

It is also needful to remember that the Conference is essentially in control of the Southern delegates, and that such Northern official representation as exists has been in obedience to the unanimous demand of the Conference. In harmony with this feature of the Conference, all the members of the campaign committee, composed of the several district and bureau directors, of the Southern Education Board, are residents of Southern states. In addition, nine other prominent Southern men are representing the boards in various forms of activity.

We are a proud people. The vast resources, growth of wealth, increase of population, achievements of enterprise, tremendous material strides forward witnessed by recent years, appeal to the imagination with overwhelming force, and we are dazzled by the brilliance of the pageant as we are confused by its incomprehensible magnitude. I freely admit the blessings of commercialism and recognize, with a good, healthful spirit, that trade is the vanguard of civilization and the ally of education.

We are, indeed, a proud people. We boast of our civilization. We are vain of our national achievements in science, literature, the fine arts, education, philanthropy and social progress. There is an aristocracy of intellect and culture, as of money, and, in it all, self is the object of highest worship.

We should be an humble people. Are the wily arts of the demagogue, North or South, who finds in prejudice, produced by ignorance, the opportunity to serve himself through the triumph of that

which is false, a subject of pride? Is the prevalence of provincialism, urban or metropolitan (the latter the greater), which narrows the view to things local and selfish, a subject of pride? Is the heredity of ignorance, that transmits its baleful and growing blight from generation to generation, a subject of pride? Is the failure of law, North or South, to punish crime and the freedom of the criminal to prey upon society, a subject of pride? Is the arrogance and indifference of wealth to human need a subject of pride?

When we look fairly at the under side of things, with a good, honest purpose to know the truth, does not all our pride melt away, and does it not seem that, instead of boasting of our exalted civilization, we should confess with humiliation that we are just emerging from barbarism?

The Conference primarily owes its existence to a great class who have heard and obeyed the call to personal service. In the beginning it earnestly extended sympathy to teachers of every degree, and quickly came back a loyal response. From then until now the blessed tie that binds has been strengthened, and the reflex atmosphere of appreciation has encouraged the men and women from various other walks of life to remain in association with the Conference. But without the help of the teachers it would long since have expired.

Encouragement has also come from educational officials. The Conference and the boards have been in most delightful harmony with the governors of states, superintendents of education of states and cities, presidents of universities and colleges and trustees of many institutions. Thus the influences have been reciprocal and twice blessed.

It is a source of deep regret to me that I cannot present a full, graphic and complete picture of what has been doing in many and various fields of educational influence by the various agencies to which allusion has already been made. In some quarters there has been an impression that the Conference is a distributor of money, and people have come from distant points to present claims only to meet with disappointment. But, as a matter of fact, the Conference treasury is merely a vacancy, a figment of the imagination. The Southern Education Board is costly because its plans are large, but it is a dependent without a dollar of margin over its executive expense roll. The General Education

Board has had some money to use for the moderate encouragement of people and institutions to self-help. This partial repetition is made only to emphasize the fact that the great objective is the arousing of interest among all the people for the education of the children. And splendid have been some of the results. In certain states it has been a great awakening like an intellectual tidal wave, but, unlike such a wave, it will not recede leaving desolation in its track. In many states during the last year education has been the successful rival of politics in commanding public attention, and the same has been true of certain countries and neighborhoods that have taken independent and local action.

In some places it has been a single earnest person ; in others, the representatives of the boards, in others, state officials, in others, the combination of all these forces operating in different ways towards the same end. Despondency comes sometimes when the great gulf between need and relief is contemplated, but courage rises with a view of things accomplished.

CURRENT PROBLEMS IN ALABAMA¹

By HON. JOSEPH B. GRAHAM, Alabama State Attorney

In May of 1902 an informal conference of leading educators in Alabama was held for the purpose of meeting the representatives of the General and Southern Education Boards, Dr. Wallace Buttrick and Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy. The purposes and plans of the board were made known at that conference and most cordially endorsed by the teachers. Beginning with June the writer made a three months' campaign in various sections of the states, attending commencements where an opportunity might be afforded to talk to the people for the local support of better schools and better qualified teachers, to be better paid. The writer devotes about six months of his time to his duties as prosecuting officer in one of the judicial circles, composed of six counties of the state of Alabama, the rest of the time being given to the work of the Southern Education Board. This recalls that the first day of circuit court in a rural county in Alabama is a great day, when citizens from every section of the county come up to the county seat, some as jurors, witnesses and litigants, some to swap horses and tobacco, but many just to greet friends, talk politics and to get and distribute the news in general. These first days have been used largely by the office-seekers and politicians for getting office and promoting patriotism (?). I have endeavored to utilize these occasions in talking of good schools, sounder morals, and higher and purer aims; and, if I mistake not the sentiment of the people, I believe that they appreciate the change.

I have visited twenty-two counties, and have delivered from one to four addresses in each county within the eleven months of my service. My work and speeches have been along the line of stimulating the people to self-reliance and to the local support of their schools, looking ultimately to free public schools supported by local taxation with the district as the unit. In my opinion every dollar, the giving of which is felt and is to some extent a sacrifice upon the part of the person making the contribution, whether vol-

¹ EDITORIAL NOTE.—Probably no educational workers in the country are so familiar with the details of conditions in the Southern school system as the special field agents who have been appointed by the Southern Education Board to conduct its campaign. By the courtesy of the Board a number of these reports are here printed in condensed form.

untary or under form of law, consecrated to the cause of public education, is worth more to the contributor and to the growth of genuine patriotism than a hundred dollars which may come unmerited or unappreciated, or from misdirected philanthropy.

As an instance of the interest of our rural population in our educational progress, and of the character of my field work, I recall one day in July during the severe drouth which almost destroyed the cotton and corn crops of Alabama last year. It was in a mountain county about twenty-five miles from a railroad. There was an all-day educational rally, with an abundance of substantial "dinner on the ground," notwithstanding the blight then resting on the burning, thirsty fields. The people came in great numbers from the surrounding country. Many walked, some rode in good buggies and surreys; but many families of from three to twelve persons came in plain farm wagons with straw-covered beds, chairs from the fireside as seats, drawn by a yoke of oxen. Many of them were clad in home-woven jeans and cotton; most of them wore shoes, but some, even adults, were barefooted; but all were happy and cheerful and welcomed visiting speakers most cordially. Many speeches were made during the day along educational lines, and the young and old seemed to be inspired to do and hope for better things for the youth of the land. I went the same afternoon to another place ten miles distant, where a protracted meeting was in progress. They were having morning service at 11 o'clock and evening service at 7.30. They heard of my visit and the evening sermon was delivered at "early candlelight," 6.30 o'clock, and everything was in readiness for me at 8 p. m.

The speeches made by two other visitors and myself had earnest attention for more than two hours, and they were so pitched along the line of close relation of home, school and church, and of intelligence, morals and religion, that even the hesitating preacher declared to his congregation just before the benediction that they had just heard the best sermons of the revival.

On the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth of January we held a conference of county superintendents in Montgomery. Of the sixty-six superintendents in the state, sixty were in attendance and five were providentially detained at home. The Alabama legislature was in session, and almost every member was in attendance at the two great mass-meetings held in the evenings. Many of the

prominent educators and citizens of the state, including the very best citizenship of the capital city, were also present. This conference, for power and widespread influence among educators, citizens and legislators, was far beyond anything in the history of the state, and has brought our best citizenship into thorough sympathy with the work of the two great Education Boards.

We have a new organic law which guarantees the rights and protection of citizenship to all, but restricts the privilege of suffrage to only those who contribute either of their intelligence to the good of society, or of taxes for the material support of the government. Recognizing the power of intelligence as a factor in the creation of wealth, more than one-half of the entire income of the state has been set aside as a trust fund for the education of the youth of the state, and the legislature is instructed to make additional appropriations when the revenues and collections shall justify.

For the first time in the history of our commonwealth, the principle and privilege of local taxation for public school purposes are recognized in the organic law. It is true that the unit is the county and one mill the limit, while the ideal unit is the district and the will of the people the limit, still all must agree that ours is better than no unit and no rate at all. If I mistake not the sentiment of the people in the counties which I have visited, they will vote to levy the one mill tax at the first opportunity.

My future work will be largely in assisting the educational forces in several counties in campaigns for the levying of the one mill tax.

The doctrine of local taxation is becoming popular and is going to win in Alabama, although our public school system has been in existence only about fifty years and has had but small financial support until the past fifteen years. Our rural white schools averaged one hundred and five days and our rural colored schools averaged ninety-three days, free terms, during the last scholastic year.

Be it said to the credit of Alabama, that, although her people are comparatively poor, though she has in common with other Southern states suffered the disasters of war and borne the burdens and sacrifices of reconstruction, and though forty-four per cent of her population belongs to a race which pays but little more than five per cent of the taxes, still our new organic law forbids that dis-

crimination inspired by prejudice which would restrict the educational privileges and rights of a particular class or race according to its contribution in taxes for the support of the government. This equality of benefits did not arise from any cringing fear of federal amendments, but from a spontaneous philanthropy too generous to take advantage of the poor, and a sense of right and humanity too proud to stoop to wrong an inferior race.

In my opinion, the highest and sincerest expression of the principle of fraternity and the most splendid prophecy of the permanence and high standard of our future civilization are to be found at one and the same time in the willingness of the people, through honest government, to make liberal contribution for free public schools for the education of all the people.

EDUCATIONAL WORK IN TENNESSEE

By DR. CHARLES W. DABNEY, President of the University of Tennessee.

The relation of school funds to population in Tennessee is most instructive. The annual appropriation for public schools is 46 cents on each \$100 of taxable property reported and 86 cents per caput of total population. Figures for some other states are given for comparison: Missouri, 42 cents and \$2.50; Minnesota, 59 cents and \$3.20; Nebraska, \$2.32 and \$4.12; Colorado, \$1.05 and \$5.18; California, 58 cents and \$4.65; New York, 60 cents and \$4.60; Illinois, \$2.08 and \$3.68. It will be seen that these states pay much more for their schools in proportion to their taxable wealth and several times more in proportion to their population than does Tennessee.

The amount expended for schools per caput for children between the ages of five and twenty is in Tennessee \$2.32; in Kentucky, \$2.32; Texas, \$3.63; Minnesota, \$8.63; Michigan, \$8.90; Ohio, \$9.94; New York, \$10.91; Colorado, \$11.11; California, \$16.44; Massachusetts, \$17.79. Massachusetts pays thus nearly eight times as much for the common school education of each of her children as does Tennessee.

An important factor is the amount of taxable property per caput of school children. For each child between the ages of five and twenty years there is in Tennessee \$509 of taxable property, in North Carolina \$337, in Georgia \$516, but in Iowa it is \$714, in Missouri \$1,982, in Michigan \$1,996, in New York \$2,661.

Probably our friends in the North do not properly appreciate the difficulties and burdens resulting from our double system of schools. An average county in Tennessee has, for instance, twenty-five school children to the square mile, fifteen white and ten colored, making practically two counties, each having a small population. Consolidation is thus more necessary in the South than anywhere else.

In conclusion, a few things which seem most needed in our work should be mentioned.

1. Men and money to do more missionary work among poorer and more isolated populations. The people in one-half of the

counties of the South are probably not able to support any kind of a decent school, even if they knew how to do so. They must first be taught the farm and household arts, how to cultivate the soil properly, how to utilize their forest and other resources and so to make money with which to maintain their schools. In that great territory covering the Appalachian region, reaching from Virginia to Alabama, there is a great population of healthy, vigorous and noble people, our brothers in blood, or "our contemporary ancestors," as President Frost has so aptly called them, which this board has scarcely touched. In the mountain counties of Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Georgia and Alabama there are already, out of one million white males twenty-one years of age, nearly two hundred thousand who cannot read and write. The people of the better counties east and west of the mountains have all they can do for a generation or more to develop their own schools. The burning question is, shall we permit another generation of these mountain boys and girls to grow up in ignorance? Probably we cannot do much for the people of this generation, but because we must let them pass away, shall we let another generation grow up in poverty and ignorance? These are our brethren, fellow-citizens of these states and of the great republic. The appeal is therefore to the whole nation. How dare we permit so large a portion of our fellow-citizens to live any longer under these conditions?

2. There are needed a few model consolidated industrial schools scattered over the South. Our people do not know what a good country school is; they have no ideals towards which to work. If there were even three or four such schools in each state, properly located, where superintendents and directors could visit them, they would, we believe, multiply themselves very rapidly.

3. Teachers for the schools. There are almost no professional teachers in the country schools. There must be normal schools for elementary teachers; several of them in each state to train country boys and girls to be teachers in the rural schools.

4. Superintendents, men competent to direct educational work, to organize and administer schools, educational engineers of all grades and classes, are greatly needed, as well as principals of schools and supervisors of technical and industrial education, manual training, domestic science and art and the other newer branches. The greatest need of the South after all is a great teachers' college,

which shall educate and train the men and women who are to be the leaders in this work and the directors in the Southern schools of the future.

The time is come for constructive work, and we must educate the men to do it.

We must recognize the present wretched condition of our schools and the great difficulties resulting from our poverty and sparse population, but let us recognize also the advantages of having a field clear of the rubbish of false systems, of a great country of excellent natural resources and filled with a race of men who have never yet failed to build great, splendid institutions when they got ready to the task. Let us take courage from this great awakening and look forward hopefully to the time, which is surely coming, when the South shall have such a system of schools that our Northern friends will have to come down South to learn how to organize the modern school, and when we shall be making peaceful invasions into the North and helping them hold conferences of education for the improvement of their schools.

THE SOUTHWESTERN FIELD

By DR. EDWIN A. ALDERMAN,¹ President Tulane University, New Orleans,
Louisiana

In the Southwestern field our great purpose has been to arouse an irresistible public opinion for the establishment and maintenance of a system of schools adequate for the needs of a free people. When that is aroused, the thing is done, and the problem assumes another phase—the scientific phase.

The first achievement of this public opinion will be the appropriation of sufficient money for such schools. This money may be obtained by state appropriation, by local taxation and community effort, and by appropriation of unexpended balances by parish and county boards. A parallel achievement will be the consolidation of weak schools into strong central schools and the hauling of children to these central schools.

It is believed that better schoolhouses, the trained teacher and all other blessings will follow in the wake of these achievements. Much has been accomplished in these directions by devoted men in the southwestern field during the last twenty years, but each new generation must fight for its life and for the life of the generation to come.

The activities of the Southern Education Board during the past summer were expended upon summer schools at Lafayette and Lake Charles, La., and the general purposes of the board were understood and promulgated in the two schools at Monroe and Ruston. President Caldwell, of the State Normal School, and Superintendent Calhoun were intelligently fruitful and active throughout the whole state, and too much credit cannot be accorded them. Professors Dillard, Himes, Aswell and Showalter, in addition to their regular duties in these schools, made it their business to preach the need for greater educational facilities throughout the state. An intensive campaign was conducted in the parish of Calcasieu by Professor Himes, of the Louisiana State University. In this great parish,

¹Special Agent Southern Education Board.

which contains a population of 35,000 people, thirty meetings were held and seventy addresses delivered. As a result of this activity, one ward voted outright a special tax of three mills and five others have voted the five-mill tax, amounting to a total of \$15,000. Perhaps the best result of this single parish campaign was the revelation to the whole state of the possibilities of this great work and the revelation to all the other parishes of the good that can come to them by co-operation with these boards.

The most notable events of the fall months in Louisiana were two great meetings, one for the white people and one for the negro people. The meeting of the parish superintendents of the state was held in New Orleans under the general direction of Dr. Wallace Buttrick, general agent of the General Education Board. It was attended by all of the superintendents of the state and was fruitful in practical suggestions and stimulation. The most distinct value of the meeting was the impulse given to the idea of consolidation of schools. Extensive consolidation has occurred in the parishes of Lafayette, Ascension, and Sabine, and it is proposed to consolidate eighteen districts in Iberia parish and to establish a central school from which no child will be distant more than ten miles.

The next great meeting was one for the colored race and was attended by the leading teachers and citizens of the negro race from all over the state. It was held in New Orleans in October and was under the general direction of Principal Booker T. Washington. The address of Principal Washington was characterized by his usual patriotic common sense and earnestness, and meant a good deal in the moulding of public opinion in the minds of the white race and fixing rational ideals in the minds of the colored race.

Conditions are now thoroughly promising for a fruitful campaign in the State of Louisiana. The movement is now a genuine, whole-hearted movement, and the next three months will be months of real achievement in this work. That this is so we are indebted to the governor of the state, in whose parish of Union a ten-mill tax has been voted, the state superintendent, Hon. J. V. Calhoun, and the leading educators in the colleges and schools of the state.

The central educational campaign committee, consisting of the governor of the state, W. W. Heard; the state superintendent, Hon. J. V. Calhoun; Colonel T. D. Boyd, president of Louisiana State University; President B. C. Caldwell, of the Louisiana State Nor-

mal College, and myself, have appointed Mr. William M. Steele, of the *Picayune*, as executive secretary of that committee. Twenty parishes, carefully selected, have been chosen as the immediate field, sixty-five citizens of Louisiana, including the governor, state superintendent, prominent teachers, state officers, eminent lawyers and business men, have accepted service as campaign speakers. Appointments have been made already at twenty-five points, and the state will have been covered during the summer. The prominent men of the localities concerned, parish school boards and committees of citizens are co-operating with the speakers and school officers.

The opening meetings of this campaign were held at Broussard and Carencro of April 5 and 11. The addresses were made by Governor Heard, President Caldwell, and Professor Fortier, who spoke in French, French being the language that gives them the impulse to vote more than English. These meetings were attended by 1,900 people. Nearly every one present signed a petition for a three-mill tax, and this means the undoubted success of the movement.

A call has been issued for a conference of the presidents of the parish boards of education and of the police juries, who are men of force and influence. This conference will meet in the early fall and it will be its purpose to urge that all the money available in the parish treasuries be invested in the education of the children.

Democracies are not in the habit of being carried in a chariot of enthusiasm to a height of civic perfection. The whole process is a toilsome one of convincing and persuading.

One of the principal difficulties met with in this field of work has been the obstacle presented by the Mississippi River. It costs Louisiana a million dollars a year to control the river in normal times. It will cost this year a million and a half in addition to this. This is a very grave difficulty indeed, which the lower valley of the Mississippi should be relieved of by the United States Government. It has been impossible to attempt anything practical in the river region this spring. Still I can say that it has not diminished the zeal of those people in educational matters. Indeed, it seems to have increased their interest in a way, as men are always more interested in vital things when they are in trouble.

Two great summer schools were held in Louisiana this summer, one at Monroe and one at New Iberia. The school at Monroe is a combination of the schools formerly held at Ruston and Monroe,

and has been generously helped by the General Education Board. The industrial plant of the Ruston Institute will be removed to Monroe and the industrial plant of the Southwestern Institute at Lafayette will be removed to New Iberia, it being intended thus to emphasize the industrial aspect of rural school education. President Aswell has general charge of the great summer school to be held at Monroe, and at both schools serious attention will be given to training of practical campaigners for the work in hand.

Recent communications from the state superintendents of Mississippi and Arkansas (Superintendents Whitfield and Hineman) enable me to say briefly that very genuine progress has taken place, under their wise direction, in both of those places in the last few months, and both of them are scenes of great activity in educational matters. In Mississippi a popular educational campaign was waged throughout all last summer with favorable results, eleven out of fourteen counties signifying their desire to increase the school tax. The average term of the rural school has been lengthened from six to eight months in the last two years. It is interesting to note that a leading issue in the gubernatorial election is the question of the improvement of the schools for all the people, white and black. There is to be a summer school at the University of Mississippi under the direction of Chancellor Fulton, at which, in addition to the several subjects taught, it will be sought to arouse a concerted effort to send ~~out~~ men to battle for the school the coming year, which is to be an election year.

The letter from Superintendent Hineman is of a most encouraging character. The state legislature of Arkansas passed bills for better systematizing of the schools and the elevation of their standards. An important and significant sign of increasing interest in education in Arkansas is the fact that the salary of the superintendent's office has been increased so that it ranks next to the governor's, which is a progressive thing to do. The proposition to raise the state tax from three to four mills failed by three votes. A bill providing for the State Normal School failed by a very small vote, but, as a measure of this sort had never before reached the third reading, I suppose this may be described as encouraging.

Wherever the community feels itself in a position to make a successful fight for better schools, a report of its intention is made to the secretary of our campaign committee, who immediately places

at the disposal of the local authorities whatever speeches are at our command, and thus it is believed that the strongest influences will be made to co-operate with local interests and purposes. The following brief summary will give some idea to this Conference of the result of educational activity in the parishes of the State of Louisiana for the past year. It is not intended to leave the impression that this activity is directly or indirectly the result of work done by the agencies of the Southern Education Board, for much of it is due to a deep-seated purpose on the part of the people out of their own thinking to establish their schools solidly and enduringly. The figures are not complete, for parish and county superintendents sometimes consider it a perquisite of their offices not to reply to requests for statistical information. I am indebted to the kindness of Superintendent Calhoun for the figures herein submitted.

There are fifty-eight parishes in Louisiana. In forty-eight of these parishes eighty-one new schoolhouses were built and these houses are of distinctly modern and effective type. In forty parishes from which replies were received, two hundred and thirty schoolhouses were repaired and refurnished. Increase of school income through local taxation has taken place in twenty-one parishes, amounting in money to \$75,000. The parish police juries have increased the amount of money for schools by appropriation in fourteen parishes, amounting in money to \$37,800. The state legislature increased the general amount of their appropriations by the sum of \$128,000. All this does not include the city of New Orleans, and the total amount is \$240,000. Campaigns are now under way in four great parishes, and in one, Cameron, it is proposed to increase the tax ten mills. I believe that there will be many other campaigns under way before the fall months.

I have no novel suggestions to make. The moulding of public opinion is a slow business, but it is splendid and renovating when it is moulded. The thing for us to do, therefore, is to hammer on until the desire for better schools, and all that belongs to better schools, becomes a contagion with the people.

It is perhaps proper for me to state that, as district director of the Southern Education Board, it has been my privilege to make thirty-five public addresses in the past year on the subject of education, twenty-six of them being in Louisiana, Mississippi and Alabama, and nine in other states. The people of Louisiana are ready,

as I have said, for large action. Their leaders are enthusiastic and dead in earnest. Strengthened and stimulated by the healthfulness issuing from this Conference and from the Southern and General Education Boards, much lasting good will be done.

CURRENT PROBLEMS IN NORTH CAROLINA

By DR. CHARLES D. McIVER,¹ President State Normal College, Greensboro, North Carolina

At a conference held in Raleigh, February 13, 1903, representing all educational interests—state, denominational and private—the opinion was unanimous that all influences should be brought to bear upon the improvement of the rural public schools, that the consolidation of school districts, the improvement of schoolhouses and the adoption of the principle of local taxation for public education were our three fundamental needs, and that there should be a systematic and persistent agitation to secure these ends.

The writer's work as district director has been largely, though not entirely, confined to North Carolina, and practically all of it has been done in connection with and through the following agencies:

- I. Educational Conference for various purposes.
- II. A systematic, popular campaign for local taxation.
- III. The organization and work of the Women's Association for the betterment of public schoolhouses in North Carolina.

I.

Educational Conferences.—Conferences at Raleigh, Greensboro, Charlotte and Hickory were held. The general purpose of these conferences was the same, though the distinctive feature of the first at Raleigh was general organization, that of the second and third, at Greensboro and Charlotte, the promotion of the idea of community philanthropy, while the purpose of the fourth was to saturate a community with such educational sentiment as would make it ready to vote a special local tax for schools.

All of the conferences were attended by the state superintendent, the governor, the president of the State University, the president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, the president of the State Normal School and Industrial College, and representatives of the leading denominational colleges of the state. A large number of public and private school-teachers and of citizens engaged in various callings were also present at each conference.

¹ Special Agent, Southern Education Board.

I paid the railroad expenses of the superintendents of about fifty counties in the western part of the state, enabling each of them to attend one of the conferences, thus giving them an opportunity to come in touch with one another and with the educational leaders of the state, and, at the same time, giving the state superintendent an opportunity to outline a uniform plan for his lieutenants.

We had planned to hold two conferences in the eastern part of North Carolina, but, finding that Secretary Buttrick, of the General Education Board, was planning a conference of all the county superintendents at Raleigh, I did not think it wise to hold any district conferences in the eastern portion of the state this year.

In my judgment, no money has ever been spent more wisely than that which made it possible for the county superintendents to come together in the smaller conferences and in the General Conferences at Raleigh. All of these conferences, except the two at Raleigh, produced a profound impression upon the communities in which they were held. The two conferences at Raleigh also did much to quicken educational thought throughout the state, because the newspapers at the capital and the special correspondents located there gave wide circulation to the important events of each conference.

The work of the Greensboro Conference was told in the Athens report. I shall speak again, however, in this report, of some important results of that conference.

On May 2, just after the Athens Conference, our Charlotte Conference was held. An effort was made to repeat the work of the Greensboro Conference with one additional feature. We undertook to raise from the city of Charlotte \$6,000, which, in turn, the General Education Board had agreed to duplicate, with the understanding that two-thirds of the amount should go to the rural schools of Mecklenburg County and one-third to the public schools of Henderson County situated in the mountain section of the state. Not quite all of this money was raised, but I am informed that all of it will be raised, and already several districts in Mecklenburg County have held elections on the local tax question, and in most of them the vote has been favorable.

At the Hickory Conference, August 13 and 14, no effort was made to raise money for rural schools, because Hickory, though a town of considerable size and of some importance in the state as a

manufacturing centre, has not yet voted a local tax upon its own property. In addition to the ordinary work of the conference, every effort was made to strengthen public sentiment in Hickory. About one year previous to the conference, the town had voted upon the question of levying a local tax and the movement was defeated. Since the Hickory Conference it has voted again, and favorably, upon the question, and Hickory will soon have a good school system, though it is necessary for the people to provide new buildings as well as maintain the schools. I would not claim that our conference at Hickory was the sole cause of the favorable vote, but unquestionably it was of great assistance to the friends of the cause.

At all the conferences the state superintendent had an opportunity to work very effectively in behalf of consolidation of school districts. The number of school districts now in North Carolina is about two hundred less than the number was on July 1, 1901.

II.

Popular Campaign for Local Taxation.—In the month of June, the state superintendent, the governor and your district director planned an active campaign for local taxation, employing as our secretary and manager one of the best educational workers in the state. By correspondence and personal conferences with representative people from different sections of the state, he and the state superintendent advertised appointments for various speakers who have been selected as suitable men to impress the doctrines of local taxation and universal education. Two hundred or more speeches were made. Most conspicuous among the campaigners from among the political and other leaders of the state were: Governor Aycock, ex-Senator and ex-Governor Thomas J. Jarvis, Congressman John H. Small, State Auditor B. F. Dixon, R. B. White, Esq., member of the state legislature; J. W. Bailey, editor of the *Biblical Recorder*; ex-State Senator A. M. Scales, ex-Attorney-General R. D. Douglas, the last two chairmen, respectively, of the Democratic and Republican executive committees of Guilford County. Each of these speakers was usually accompanied by an active teacher familiar with every phase of the educational question.

The educators who took an active part in the campaign were headed by State Superintendent Joyner, ex-State Superintendent

Mebane, ex-State Superintendent Scarborough, presidents of the state colleges, the presidents or professors of nearly all of the leading denominational colleges, superintendents of the city public schools, county superintendents and others. These speeches were made chiefly in the months of June, July and August.

Already last summer's campaign has borne fruit, as several districts have voted a special tax and many places are preparing to vote it. The most significant fact that I can state in regard to the North Carolina campaign is that the audiences attending the educational meetings in June, July and August were larger than the audiences that attended the political speakings in the months of September and October preceding the November election. Several of the speakers were in both campaigns, and the governor, who is probably the most effective and popular political campaigner in the state, says that his audiences at his fifteen speeches in the educational campaign were larger than the audiences he addressed at any fifteen political gatherings. To a person who knows North Carolina, this means a revolution in public thinking so far as education is concerned, for the political speakers had as large audiences as they have usually had except in a year when there was a Presidential election.

The educational campaign was participated in by political leaders, educators, editors, clergymen, lawyers, physicians, business men and farmers.

To some extent this campaign would have been carried on even if there had been no Southern Education Board, but I would not know how to estimate the value of the assistance the Board has rendered by paying the traveling expenses of most of the campaigners and defraying the expenses for literature and campaign organization. It should be said here that the traveling expenses of the governor and state superintendent were paid by themselves.

I have felt all the time that, acting as the agent of the Southern Education Board, it was my business to find out where valuable educational work was going on and then to use the means it placed at my disposal to intensify and multiply the force of that work, rather than undertake to inaugurate new schemes or independent campaigns, or wage any warfare upon individuals or movements that did not meet my approval or the approval of those I was representing. It was worth more to the cause of universal education to

strengthen those who were fighting for it than to fight those who were pulling the other way. Truth needs nothing but agitation in a fair, open field.

In addition to the work of the speakers in the campaign, three or four hundred dollars was spent in preparing and disseminating educational literature through newspapers and special tables of local statistics bearing upon the subject of taxation for schools, consolidation of school districts and improvements of public schoolhouses.

III.

Women's Association for the Betterment of Public Schoolhouses in North Carolina.—Just before the close of the past college year, I undertook to organize, through the students of the State Normal and Industrial College, a women's movement for the improvement of the public schoolhouses of the state. It is the women rather than the men who have made the churches in the town and in the country attractive and habitable. Men have had the exclusive management of courthouses and largely the exclusive management of schoolhouses, and upon both the marks of masculinity and neglect are plainly visible.

This organization, called the "Women's Association for the Betterment of Public Schoolhouses in North Carolina," includes now not only students of the State Normal and Industrial College, but representative women, teachers and others, in various sections of the state. About twenty counties have good organizations, and literature has been sent to all the other counties. The purpose of this association is to organize small clubs or branch associations around each public school where there are three or more women who will volunteer their services to improve each year the schoolhouse and grounds. There is no membership fee, except that the women have decided that men may become associate members, if they desire to do so, by paying an annual fee of one dollar.

We held a meeting of ten or fifteen women, including the officers of this association, last June at Morehead City, during the session of the North Carolina Teachers' Assembly.

In addition to furnishing literature, I agreed to pay the expenses, to a limited extent, of ten workers in the field. So far the entire expense of the association has not reached \$300. In the meantime,

it has secured the co-operation of the *Youth's Companion*, which assists in furnishing literature, and sends pictures as premiums to those schools that take steps towards beautifying their houses and grounds. The newspapers of the state have been exceedingly generous towards this organization, as well as to the other movements in which I have participated as district director of the board.

The association has decided to join the Federation of Women's Clubs in the state. The president of the Federation, Mrs. Lindsay Patterson, of Winston-Salem, is one of the most effective workers for school improvement. I am thoroughly satisfied that every dollar invested in aiding the 2,000 members of this Women's Association will sooner or later yield a most bountiful harvest of good to our cause.

Guilford County.—I have thought that you would be especially interested to know the progress made in Guilford County, beginning with the conference held in Greensboro, the county seat, on April 3 and 4, 1902. This was the first of our conferences after the Raleigh meeting for organization. It was the first meeting attended by the county superintendents in large numbers. It will be remembered that, by private subscriptions, \$4,000 was raised at this conference to promote the cause of public education in the rural districts of Guilford County, and that the General Education Board duplicated this amount, making the total fund \$8,000, which amount was afterwards increased a few hundred dollars by various subscriptions.

The local board appointed at the conference to manage this fund immediately offered to aid any rural school district that would vote a special local school tax to supplement the present state and county fund. In the meantime, a steady campaign was begun to urge upon the people the importance of voting the tax independent of outside help. So far nine districts have voted this special tax, and have received, or will receive, aid from the Greensboro Conference fund. In no instance have we lost an election, though in one case our majority was only one vote and in another only four votes. We hope to carry every district in the county within two years from the date of the conference, but if we do not, the fund will all go to those districts that vote the tax.

Our Committee has proposed to give \$1,000 to the first of the fifteen rural townships in the county that votes a three-mill tax, or thirty cents on every hundred dollars' worth of property in the entire

township and ninety cents on each poll. This vote, wherever carried, will increase the annual school fund nearly 100 per cent, and will more than double the efficiency of the schools. At the same time, by actual count, four-sevenths of the taxpayers of the fifteen rural townships would pay less than ninety cents property tax of the special tax so voted, as four-sevenths of the taxpayers are assessed less than \$300.

My own work in the Guilford County campaign has been to get these facts into the minds of every citizen of the county. These same figures are approximately correct for any county in North Carolina. I have placed the facts and figures in every home in the fifteen rural townships of Guilford, through newspapers and printed tables, and we hope not to be defeated in a single election in the county.

These statements will, I think, explain to you why we are moving a little more slowly in Guilford than might appear at first to be necessary. We began with single districts where sentiment was most favorable. Now we are soon to have an election for an entire township instead of a district, and some citizens have recently suggested that we try the entire county at once. This last suggestion will probably not be followed, and I only mention it to show progress in favorable sentiment and growing confidence among the friends of the same cause.

So far our local board in Guilford County has made no hard and fast rule as to the amount of money to be appropriated to each district from the \$8,000 fund, but usually in the districts that have voted the local tax we have given one dollar for every two raised by a private subscription to build and furnish schoolhouses. To illustrate, a district voted local tax and agreed to raise by private subscription \$400 for a schoolhouse, and we gave them \$200. Another district voted the tax and besides raised \$800, to which we added \$400, making a total building fund of \$1,200. Of this \$1,200 it will be seen, therefore, that the General Education Board contributes \$200, or one-sixth, the private contributors at the Greensboro Conference \$200, or one-sixth, while the immediate locality furnishes two-thirds of the amount, besides voting the annual tax to double its school fund. I cannot conceive of a finer educational investment than this, where one philanthropic dollar is met by another philanthropic dollar and four local dollars, all from private

sources, and at the same time the whole community is encouraged to vote an annual tax that will permanently double the efficiency of its schools.

If this proportion should be kept up through the county, the \$4,000 given by the General Education Board will result in the raising of \$20,000 in the county by private subscriptions, and a special tax for schools amounting annually to more than \$10,000. Undoubtedly this tax would be voted some time in the future without aid from any outside source; and it is proper to say here that I had the promise of \$1,500 from Greensboro people for stimulating purposes before the General Education Board agreed to duplicate all we would raise, not exceeding \$4,000; but without the stimulus of its generous offer we could not have hoped for a large fund, and the voting of the special local tax in the rural districts of Guilford County would have been postponed to a considerably later date.

In less than two years from the date of the Greensboro Conference, it is probable that Guilford County alone will have more special school-tax communities than all the state of North Carolina had ten years ago, including its towns and cities.

Our able state superintendent of public instruction, Hon. J. Y. Joyner, has furnished me statistics recently secured from most of the counties, showing that in those counties there are now seventy-nine towns and cities and rural communities that have a special local school tax, that elections are pending in forty-five districts, and that in nearly one hundred other communities the question of a local school tax is being considered and agitated with probable elections soon.

It is interesting to note that three counties aided by the Greensboro Conferences and the General Education Board with a bonus of twenty thousand dollars, have been more active than any other three counties in the state during the past year, this aid to the rural districts being exactly in the line of the aid of the Peabody Fund to Greensboro, Charlotte and other towns and cities in North Carolina when they first voted a special local tax for schools.

Guilford County now has nine local tax districts, besides Greensboro and High Point, and about ten other districts are considered favorable for an election during the next six months.

Mecklenburg County has three local tax districts, besides Char-

lotte, and has one election pending and three other districts considered favorable.

Henderson County, in the mountains of western North Carolina, has three local tax districts, elections pending in two districts, and four other districts considered favorable.

As showing the tendency to consolidation, the number of school districts in Henderson County is three less than it was last June; the number of districts in Guilford County is four less than it was last June, and the number of districts in Mecklenburg County is six less than it was last June.

The North Carolina legislature at its last session enacted many beneficial changes in the school laws:

First.—While it reduced many general appropriations and reduced the sum total of its appropriations below what they were two years ago, it increased every educational appropriation.

Second.—It adopted every official recommendation of the state superintendent of public instruction, with one exception, and that suggestion, to provide for deputy state superintendents, will be made again and probably enacted into law two years from now.

Third.—It increased the clerical force of the state superintendent of public instruction, and increased the salary of that officer thirty-three and one-third per cent. So far as I recall, this is the second state salary increased by the legislature during the past twenty years. It is proper to state that, at Superintendent Joyner's request, the increase in salary will not become effective until his present term of office expires, two years from now.

Fourth.—It established a \$200,000 loan fund, to be used under the direction of the State Board of Education for the building and improving of public schoolhouses. Each loan must be returned in ten annual instalments, with 4 per cent interest paid annually. This arrangement provides a \$200,000 loan for this year and a perpetual annual loan fund of \$28,000.

Fifth.—The appropriation of \$5,000 for rural libraries was increased to \$7,500, \$2,500 of which is to go to the improvement of the nearly five hundred rural libraries established within the past two years, and the other \$5,000 to be used as the first \$5,000 was used, to establish new libraries. Under this plan the school district raises \$10 by private subscription, the county fund pays \$10 and the state fund pays \$10, so that this \$7,500 appropriation means

\$22,500 to be invested in reading for the children of rural districts in addition to the \$15,000 recently so invested.

Sixth.—The compensation of the county superintendents was increased fifty per cent, and provision was made for paying the expenses of county superintendents to attend a state meeting of the superintendents once a year.

Seventh.—The plans of all new schoolhouses must be approved by the county boards of education and the state superintendent.

Eighth.—The general law for local taxation was made as favorable as practicable, and forty or fifty special acts were passed allowing as many communities to vote upon the question of local taxation and the establishment of graded schools. Most of these, of course, were in the rural districts.

So much for education in North Carolina. I do not pretend to claim that all these encouraging signs are the result of the work of the Southern Education Board. The board is simply a helper, and any board may be gratified to aid in work where there is so much activity and where the signs are pointing in the right direction.

In addition to my work in North Carolina, I have, since our last meeting at Athens, in co-operation with the governor and the state school commissioner of Georgia, and the governor and the state superintendent of South Carolina, visited those states with a view to aiding in an organization similar to the one made at the Raleigh Conference more than a year ago.

In Georgia I met Governor Terrill, State School Commissioner Merrit, Hon. Hoke Smith, Bishop Candler, Chancellor Hill, President Branson and other leading educators, and found them ready to welcome the co-operation of the Southern Education Board in a local tax campaign as soon as the constitutional provision of Georgia relative to local taxes for schools should be amended so as to give a fair chance to the people to vote special taxes for schools. An amendment looking to this end has passed one branch of the legislature and will probably pass the other house in June and be submitted to the people for ratification. At present, before a local tax can be levied in Georgia, it is necessary to have the endorsement of the grand juries, and, at the election, two-thirds of the registered voters. This is an ironclad protection against taxing property.

On April 11 I met at Columbia, South Carolina, Governor Hayward, State Superintendent Martin, President D. B. Johnson, and

more than forty other educators representing every phase of educational work in South Carolina. They adopted a plan of campaign and issued an address to the people of South Carolina similar to that issued at the Raleigh Conference a year ago last February to the people of North Carolina. South Carolina's law is very favorable to local taxation and her constitutional tax without local taxation is three mills, or thirty cents on every one hundred dollars' worth of property, as compared with North Carolina's legislative and constitutional tax of eighteen cents on every one hundred dollars' worth of property.

Much enthusiasm was manifested at Columbia, and I believe that we may look forward to a vigorous campaign for public educational improvements in that state. It already has two hundred local tax communities.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN MISSISSIPPI

By DR. ROBERT B. FULTON, Chancellor of the University of Mississippi

In order to understand fully whatever of educational progress has been made in Mississippi during the last fifteen years, conditions which existed previous to that time should be kept in mind. In the ante bellum days the state had no public educational system. The lands granted by Congress in aid of public schools, amounting to one section in each township or about one-thirty-sixth part of all the lands in the state, had yielded no large fund for the support of education. Other funds for education were quite small. The state had been rapidly settled by immigration from the Southern states lying east of it, and the settlers were usually men of means. The per capita distribution of wealth among the whites in Mississippi immediately before the Civil War was large. Agricultural labor in the production of cotton was very remunerative. Schools of course existed only for the whites, and under private or church or community control. Such schools multiplied, and many of them did large and effective work. There was a general sentiment, founded upon individual independence and pride, which in the eyes of the public made it rather unseemly for any parent to depend upon the state for assistance in the education of his children.

The Civil War entirely changed these conditions. During the period of reconstruction some effort was made to organize a public school system. This was intended to afford equal opportunities to whites and blacks. Like many measures inaugurated in that period it incurred the odium of the tax-paying white people, and for many years little progress was made.

In the year 1890, under the administration of Hon. J. R. Preston, state superintendent of education, the first well marked effort was made to put life and vigor into the public educational system of the state. Superintendent Preston was instrumental in securing such legislation as required the examination of teachers applying for license by the state superintendent of education instead of under the direction of the county superintendents. The first examinations held in accordance with this policy showed the deficiencies of many teachers. Some were discouraged, others were stimulated. At that

time the state was receiving no help from the Peabody Education Fund, and there was no organized work maintained by the state in any school for the training of white teachers. In the fall of 1892 the faculty at the University, upon the suggestion of the chancellor, agreed to give at the University during the following summer courses which would be helpful to teachers in the public schools. Correspondence with the county superintendents of education had shown that between three and four hundred white teachers would probably be inclined to take advantage of such opportunity. The plan was proposed at the State Teachers' Association held in Jackson in December, 1892. At that time departments of pedagogy in state universities were coming into favor and the association placed on record its expression of favor for such department. In the month of January, following, Superintendent Preston secured from the secretary of the Peabody Education Fund, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, an appropriation sufficient to maintain one or two summer institutes for teachers in the State of Mississippi. One of these held at the University in the summer of 1893, brought together a concourse of four hundred and fifty teachers from the public schools, most of whom were sadly conscious of their own deficiencies. This was by far the largest assemblage of Mississippi teachers which had ever met. The mutual acquaintances and the stimulus derived from the lectures of prominent educators from various parts of the country gave great impetus in the right direction, and the work was most valuable, not only for what was accomplished, but more for what was projected. This was the beginning of the series of summer meetings at the University and elsewhere which has continued up to the present time, and with increasing interest and profit to the individual workers in the public schools as well as to education generally in the state. The last of these gatherings held at the University in June and July, 1903, was attended by more than seven hundred and fifty teachers, earnest in their desire for knowledge, skill, and increased efficiency in their work. The institution of state examination for license to teach has been undoubtedly of the greatest value in stimulating teachers and in securing better efficiency in their work, as well as the higher appreciation of their work by the public.

Another feature of far-reaching importance inaugurated during the administration of Superintendent Preston was the law authoriz-

ing the formation of separate school districts. In accordance with this law over seventy-five communities in the state were soon organized into separate districts, in which, by local taxation, excellent school buildings were erected, and provision made for the maintenance of well graded schools for a period of at least eight months in each year. These schools have in almost every case made rapid progress in the excellence of their work, and have won the fullest confidence and the cordial support of the local community. Many of them have developed good high school departments. All of them have drawn pupils from the surrounding rural districts, especially in their advanced grades. While these schools in the separate school districts do not reach more than 15 or 20 per cent of all the children of school age in the state, yet their success has been so marked that they have been a striking object lesson to other communities where conditions are not so favorable.

It should be borne in mind that in the State of Mississippi there are separate schools for whites and for negroes. The negro public schools are taught entirely by negro teachers. In the separate school districts and in the rural school districts the schools are maintained during terms of equal length for the two races.

In the year 1893, during the meeting of the teachers held at the University, a committee of ten was appointed to draft a model scheme for grading the better schools of the state and marking out for them and for high schools courses leading from the primary classes up to the freshman classes of the State University. A scheme was adopted, upon the report of this committee, by formal action of the State Teachers' Association. This was published, and has served as a model for the shaping of probably every graded school in the state. Previous to its adoption every teacher followed his own devices in the matter.

In the years 1892 and 1893 the authorities of the State University and the administrators of the public school system reached a definite understanding in regard to the relationship between the State University and the public school system by which the University and all other public schools were recognized as parts of one general system. Since that period the policy outlined by Mr. Jefferson for public education in Virginia, and first exemplified fully in the public school systems of the Northwestern states, has been practically controlling in Mississippi. There has been the heartiest

co-operation between the schools of all grades and the State University. Many of the graduates of the University have gone into the public school work, and many communities look to the University to supply them with efficient teachers.

The constitution of the state which has been in force since 1892 requires of every voter an educational qualification before he can exercise an elective franchise. It also requires that the legislature by general taxation provide sufficient funds to maintain the public schools for at least four months in each year, which funds shall be distributed to the several counties in proportion to the number of educable children. It also allows each separate school district to levy taxes within a reasonable limit to supplement the appropriation made by the state and to continue its school for a full session of nine months, and allows the several counties to make a supplemental levy sufficient to maintain public schools in the county for a period altogether of nine months in each year.

Whatever of advancement Mississippi has made in public education within the last ten years must be largely attributed to the legislation to which reference has been made. It is undoubtedly true that the requirement that a voter shall be able to read has placed a premium upon education, and that the silent working of this constitutional provision in the public mind has been wholesome. The separate school district law has given the opportunity for the development of good schools in the most favored localities. While it may have detracted something at first from the means of support of the rural schools in those counties where the separate school districts were maintained, yet upon the whole the establishment of good schools in the seventy-five or more separate school districts has undoubtedly afforded an object lesson of the greatest value to the neighboring rural districts. These, within the last five years, have felt very largely the stimulating effect of these object lessons. The legislation which allows the counties to make a special levy to maintain all the schools in the county for a longer period than four months has also been most wholesome. Nearly ten years ago County Superintendent Regan of Claiborne County, through his personal exertions, secured such a levy in his county as has maintained all the schools in the county for a period of eight or nine months each year. Other counties, amounting in number now to fully fifteen, have been induced to follow this example. Under the

aggressive administration of Superintendent Whitfield the work of lengthening the school term of the rural school by securing an additional tax levy in the counties has made rapid progress, and the end of the year 1903 will probably show that as many as thirty counties in the state have adopted this policy. It thus appears that the example set by the establishment of good schools in the separate school districts has accomplished vastly more for the rural schools than would have been accomplished if the funds used in the separate school districts had been equally distributed over the counties.

The school boards in the separate school districts are generally willing and anxious to provide every facility needed for improving the efficiency of these schools and for advancing the grade of instruction offered. It is worthy of note that never in the history of the state has there been such a large demand for thoroughly prepared and efficient teachers for the advanced grades and the high school departments of these schools as has been felt in the year 1903. These high schools are so distributed over the state as that no ambitious boy or girl need be deprived of a high school training. The larger and more complete development of these high schools is now one of the matters most urgently calling for attention in Mississippi. For this work competent high school teachers are in great demand. In order to meet these conditions the State University has arranged to expand its chair of pedagogy into a department of education. This department has been fully organized and will begin its work at the opening of the next session in September, 1903.

The advancement which has been made in the state in the last decade was strikingly evidenced by the very large number of teachers attending the Summer School of the University in 1903. As compared with those who attended in 1893 their numbers were twice as great and the evidenced proficiency largely more than thrice as great. The enthusiasm and intelligent interest in their work is a most hopeful prophecy for the rapid advancement for all work done in the public schools in Mississippi. The outlook is most encouraging in that it shows:

1. That the high school departments of the schools organized in the separate school districts are rapidly developing in efficiency and thoroughness, and are now placing opportunities for high school training in every county in the state and within reach of practically all the youth of the state.

2. That county taxation is rapidly solving the question of affording longer terms and better facilities for rural schools.

3. That the existence of good schools in the separate school districts has brought about a proper appreciation of good school work, and a larger demand for well trained and efficient teachers in the high schools as well as in the schools of lower grade, and a better appreciation of the fact that efficient teachers deserve adequate compensation for their services.

All that has been said above relates specially to schools for whites. While there are corresponding schools for negroes in the separate school districts, it should be remembered that social conditions have led to the employment of negro teachers exclusively in the negro schools, that we have been offering to the negro race identically the same form and method of instruction, with the use of the same text-books and facilities, which have been worked out for white children, and that we have tacitly been assuming that an education fitted for the Anglo-Saxon is that which should be offered to the negro children.

As a result of the prevailing conditions the advancement in education made by the negro race in Mississippi has not been as marked as that shown by the white race. It is probably true that in the elementary grades the negro child learns to read and learns the first rudiments as readily as the white child. Whether from racial or other conditions their work and advancement in the higher grades is not as largely successful in accomplishing desired results.

The public educational work which has been done for the negro race in Mississippi has been chiefly paid for by white taxpayers. This has been tacitly allowed as a matter of benevolence, and public policy rather than wise pedagogical discrimination has controlled public sentiment. One great problem of the future will be to determine what racial differentiation in the mode of education should be made for the negro race in view of his racial peculiarities and his social condition and family life. The fact that 60 per cent of the population of Mississippi belongs to this race gives special interest here to this question. Undoubtedly more of moral and parental training is needed for this race. Industrial training of various kinds may help to a successful solution of the problem as to what educational facilities are most helpful to the negro race in Mississippi. The lack of proper home influences seems to be the most serious desideratum.

THE PROGRESS OF SOUTHERN EDUCATION

By JOSEPHUS DANIELS, Esq., of Raleigh, N. C.

There have been four great obstacles to educational progress in North Carolina :

1. The negro, enfranchised against the protest of the people, who were forced against their will to pay a tax to educate him.
2. Poverty—grinding poverty—following war and reconstruction, such as this generation cannot know.
3. The lack of qualified teachers and the lack of inducement to capable men and women to become teachers.
4. High mountain ranges and numerous water courses in the west, where people live far apart and where compact school districts are impossible, and great pocosins, or swamps, in portions of the east, which present the same barriers to consolidation in many parts of the coast region that the mountain ranges present in the west.

These four obstacles : but the greatest of these has been, is now, and must be, at least in this generation, the negro. He has been the lion in the path, the ever present and often insurmountable obstacle to public education. There are those who assert that many opponents of taxation for public education on other grounds use the expenditure of money for negro education as a pretext, and that if no share of public money went to educating the negro they would still oppose taxes for public education. That may be true with some, but the naked truth is, that much of the money from taxation—I had almost said the bulk of it—that has gone to negro education, has been given against the judgment of Southern taxpayers. Here, where we are seeking to get at the real facts, so that the best results may follow, there is no need to look at things except just as they are—to paint the picture as it really is—warts, freckles and all.

Is it surprising that the Southern people, in the ashes of a poverty that pride largely concealed from the world, resented the enfranchisement of their slaves? Is it surprising that they cried out against being taxed to educate the children of negroes, newly freed, when the losses of war sent their own children, unused to manual work, into the fields to perform the coarsest labors? When

zealous women from the North, with the missionary instinct to uplift the negro, came South and themselves taught the negroes and, in some cases, mingled with them upon terms of social equality, is it strange that the Southern people felt that these teachers had come South to put the bottom rail on top? And when, in some instances, their teaching seemed at first to produce among some of the worst young negroes a vicious attitude, is Southern hostility to negro education surprising? When the statement is published upon the authority of leading teachers that the census reports show the negro to be four and a half times more criminal in New England, where the negroes are better educated than in the black belt where illiteracy is greatest, is it a matter of astonishment that men declare to-day that negro education is a failure?

The marvel of it all is, not that many Southern people cried out against paying taxes to educate negroes, believing that it did them no good, but that notwithstanding their utter disbelief in its good results or their skepticism of its value, they have gone on, year after year, spending more and more money to educate the negro children. Nor must it ever be forgotten that all over the South, before 1860, good women had taught slaves to read and write, so that when emancipation came, there were not a few negroes who had been, in an educational sense, made fit for suffrage.

The Southerners believed then, they believe now, they always will believe, with Henry Ward Beecher, "We should make the negro worthy first before giving him suffrage." Tourgee's hindsight, better than his foresight, caused him to prove that in the contrary policy pursued, the attempt was to make bricks without straw. There are many Southern people who believe thoroughly in educating the negro, and believe that it helps him and the whole country, and their unselfish efforts in his behalf are beyond all praise. There are thousands and tens of thousands who do not believe in it at all, and who are frank to say that, in their judgment, it does nobody good. There are others who, seeing the examples of negroes who have been helped by education, and being surrounded by negroes whose smattering of education has done them harm, are halting between two opinions. There are others—and in this class I believe most of the thoughtful people of the South are to be found—who feel that, whatever may be the result, they dare not shut the door of hope and opportunity which education may open to any people

anywhere—the negro in the South, the Indian in the West, the Filipino in Manila. They do not expect of education that it will change the negro rapidly. They know to the contrary. They hope, they believe, they trust, that eventually it will prove beneficial, because they have faith that light and knowledge will surely bless wherever they abound.

The eloquent Southern Methodist bishop, George F. Pierce, regarded by Toombs as the most eloquent of Georgians, was once asked if he believed that the heathen would be saved if the Christians refused to send the Gospel to them. "It is not a question to you, my friend," replied the bishop, "whether the heathen will be saved if you do not help to send them the Gospel. That is God's business. He commands you to send the Gospel. The question for you to consider is: 'Will you be saved if you disobey God's command to send it?'"

With this last class the question is not: "Can I demonstrate by statistics, by mathematics, by investigation, to my perfect satisfaction, whether negro education is worth what it costs?" The question is: "Would I dare to say to any human being, 'You shall not have the chance which education may give of improving your mental, moral and physical welfare?'"

Since 1870, according to Hon. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education (Report of U. S. Com. of Ed., 1889-1900, volume II, page 2501), the South has spent \$109,000,000 for negro education. North Carolina alone has spent \$5,380,770.74. Now if this money had been spent by people who sincerely believed it was being well invested, these figures would not seem so large, but when it is remembered that the majority of the men who paid this money either disbelieved entirely in the education of the negro, were skeptical as to its value, or favored it as Bishop Pierce said men must consider foreign missions, it is seen to be, all things considered, the most remarkable and astounding investment of money that any people ever made.

The second obstacle to educational progress in the South has been poverty.

For almost a century most of the savings of the Southern people, most of the South's surplus of wealth, had been invested in slaves. In 1860 the reported value of slaves was \$60,000,000. If, without any devastation of war, any loss of earning capacity by the men

killed or wounded in battle, or diseased by exposure incident to camp life, this immense sum of money had been taken from the South, it would have been wretchedly poor. Add to the loss of the accumulations and savings of many years, the losses in other property, which the vanquished must always bear in war, the even greater calamity in the death and maiming of its strongest and best bread-winners, and some faint idea of the poverty which the South faced in 1865 may be grasped. This utter, abject poverty, involving the denial of the common necessities, can never be known or appreciated.

But the South is still poor. I know that this will be denied by those who take a superficial view or think all the South is as rich as the Carolina truck gardens, the Virginia cities, the Texas oil wells, or the Alabama coal fields. The South is growing richer every day. It is developing its resources, its young men have gone to work in the factory, the mine, the field; on every hand you see evidences of prosperity. The future of the South industrially is assured. Out of the poverty of war, out of the disaster of reconstruction, by twenty years of well-directed industry, it has built large cities and established great industries. But, while it has done wonders in these short years and laid the foundation for greater prosperity, the South is relatively still poor. The *Southern Educator* says that 1,000,000 people live in log houses in Georgia. In every state there are thousands whose incomes are so small as to make everything beyond the common necessities of life impossible. There are fewer of these every year, thanks to the building of railroads which open new markets and avenues of wealth, and the varied industrial development which is blessing the South. But it will be generations before the South catches up with other sections of the Republic, and recovers from the losses of war and reconstruction. But she will do it. Her sons are strong, robust, industrious, confident, self-reliant, ready and willing to work with head and hand. In the face of all the progress it is making, I know it is not popular to say that the South is poor, but those who are acquainted with the rural conditions know that, while grinding poverty has passed, the bulk of the people have succeeded as yet in making but small accumulations.

The third obstacle has been the lack of trained teachers and the lack of incentive to capable men to become teachers.

Most of the male teachers between 1865 and 1880 were Confederate soldiers, many of them teaching to secure bread. They had gone into the army from schools in which they had but begun their education. With one leg or one arm gone, they were unfit, when the war was over, for the manual labor which their comrades undertook. Equipped with meagre education, but rigid discipline, they taught the children the three "r's," and in the recess delighted them with stories of the war.

I knew such a teacher, big of heart and brave as a lion, who left a leg at Gettysburg, who was one of the most popular teachers in his community. He knew how to maintain discipline, he could teach, and teach thoroughly—up to partial payments—and he could describe a battle with such graphic vividness as to make the hair of his pupils stand on end. For twenty dollars a month, for three months in the year, that noble soldier was the pioneer post-bellum leader in public education in his neighborhood. He would not shine in a teachers' institute, but he taught the rudiments thoroughly and sowed the seed from which this generation is reaping.

The short terms and low salaries have not encouraged men and women to become teachers, but the call to teach has in every year been heard and heeded by thousands, who have found a compensation that is priceless in the love and gratitude of their students. And so, though the pay has been small, the schools have been manned by teachers worth ten times the salary that they received. Better normal instruction has provided better teachers, the growing prosperity has multiplied graded schools, which have offered better inducements to teachers, and this obstacle of the lack of trained teachers is year by year disappearing.

People who live in compact communities can have little appreciation of the obstacle to adequate public schools to be found in a sparse population. In the mountains and in the low country, the population is widely scattered, and it is where the people live farthest apart the least progress has been made. But even where the environment makes strongest against progress, the people are becoming aroused to the necessity of better schools and longer terms, and are bridging swamps and climbing mountains to give their sons and daughters a better chance in life.

So much for the obstacles. We are already—the world is already—familiar with the statistics of illiteracy, the figures showing

appropriations for schools, and the general spirit of enthusiasm and hope that pervades the South. I have dwelt upon the serious obstacles because I have often thought that in some quarters the South has been too harshly judged by men who read nothing but statistics.

I am more familiar with North Carolina—its improvement as indicated by official figures and in the changed and improved and improving public sentiment—and will confine myself to the development in that state, which has the distinction of being a leader in this and other progressive educational movements. The story of North Carolina fairly tells the story of progress of all the Southern states.

I can remember when there was not a single city, town or village or a school district in North Carolina that levied a special tax for public schools, and at that time the general school tax provided a fund that afforded only the most inefficient short-term schools.

The first town that voted a local tax for graded schools was Greensboro in 1874. To-day there are seventy-eight local tax districts that support their public schools by public taxation, quite a number of country districts are doing so, and, within the past year, a large number of towns and school districts have voted a local tax to establish graded schools. The legislature of 1903 passed more special acts for establishing graded schools and erecting public school buildings than ever before in the history of the state.

But these figures in themselves do not adequately convey the real progress. Many school districts have been consolidated—that work is going on every month, wisely and rapidly—and this is all preparatory to an accelerated increase in the number of districts that will, within the next few years, vote a special tax to improve the public schools in village and in rural district, for almost every town of any importance now has its graded school, supported by taxation.

A concrete example in one growing town will illustrate the new and better condition in the whole state. It was my good fortune to grow up in the village in eastern North Carolina that had the best private schools and academies in that section of the state. Twenty-five years ago, in the town of Wilson, there was a flourishing woman's seminary and a prosperous academy for boys and young men. They attracted students from twenty counties, and had famous instructors and splendid wooden buildings. But the public school,

open only about two months, during the vacation of the private schools, was taught in an abandoned carriage factory. The teachers were good, but the crowded classes and short terms made the public school largely a failure. Few parents who could pay tuition thought of depending upon them. A magnificent brick building, costing \$50,000, has been erected for a useful and strong denominational college. The people have recently built a \$35,000 brick building for its excellent public graded school for white children. Commodious and well-equipped buildings had previously been erected for the graded schools for the negro children.

The change in most other communities has been even more marked, for in many there were only indifferent and small private schools, before the establishment of graded schools. In those a transformation greater and more uplifting than any array of figures would indicate has been wrought, for the influence of these schools of democracy has touched every phase of community life to bless it.

The progress in what we call higher education has been most gratifying. In 1875 the doors of the State University—the oldest and one of the foremost institutions of learning in the South, with an illustrious history—were closed. Only one college had a dollar of endowment and that had been seriously impaired by war. In 1875 only about three hundred young men were matriculated in all the colleges. To-day there are not less than twenty-five hundred.

Within the past fifteen years the state has established two great industrial institutions—the A. and M. College for white boys at Raleigh and the A. and M. College for colored boys at Greensboro. The aggregate appropriations and expenditures at both have been three-quarters of a million dollars. At Greensboro the state has established for women the State Normal and Industrial College, the success of which has been almost phenomenal. It represents the expenditure of more than half a million dollars in ten years. The appropriation from the state treasury has been increased from \$12,500 to \$40,000 a year. The state has added largely to the institution for the blind at Raleigh, and erected commodious and modern buildings for a model school for the deaf and dumb children at Morgantown, costing \$200,000. Private benefaction has constructed five new buildings at the University, at a cost of over \$200,000. The appropriations from the state treasury for the Uni-

versity, which reopened in 1876 with a state appropriation of \$7,500 per year, have been increased to \$37,500 per year. Eight normal schools for the training of teachers for the negro schools are maintained by the state at locations convenient and accessible.

The private academies and preparatory schools (North Carolina from its earliest history has always been blessed with a few private schools worthy to rank with the best in England or New England) have multiplied in numbers and attendance, doing a great and needed work, filling the gap between the public schools and the colleges.

The denominational colleges have gone forward steadily and rapidly. The endowment in one alone, Trinity College, coming almost wholly from two men—father and son—has grown to something like half a million. Wake Forest has increased to a quarter of a million; Davidson to a quarter of a million; Elon, during the past year, received a handsome donation. The endowments in the denominational colleges for women have not been so great, but these colleges have shown a growth that tells mightily the story of the belief in educating women that has been the distinguishing educational characteristic of the state during the past ten years. New colleges for women have been established and grown to great usefulness in a single year.

Among the most important forward steps that the state has lately taken, I must name three.

1. The legislature has now for four years made an appropriation of \$100,000 a year, out of the general funds, to be applied to the schools in the poorer counties whose revenues are not sufficient to bring their school terms up to the constitutional requirement.

2. It has made appropriations of \$12,500 for free rural libraries in connection with the public schools, which, supplemented by the counties and private subscriptions, will amount to \$37,500.

3. The general assembly, which adjourned last month, recognizing that the pressing need in public education is better schoolhouses, upon the recommendation of the state's able and wise superintendent of schools, one of the first educators in wisdom and in executive ability in America to-day, set aside the sum of \$200,000 and all funds hereafter arising from the sale of thousands of acres of public lands belonging to the state, to be a "Permanent Loan Fund for Building and Improving Public Schoolhouses."

The State Board of Education is directed to lend this money at 4 per cent to school districts which have not the money to build schoolhouses, to be repaid in ten annual instalments. This sum will be used to supplement local appropriations and contributions. If it could be doubled and the entire school fund, a large part of which has necessarily been used to build schoolhouses, could be used exclusively to employ teachers, the good result which we confidently expect in ten years, would be accomplished within one year. I believe this is the most important step taken in public education in any Southern state. You cannot secure a full attendance without comfortable schoolhouses. Good schoolhouses must be at the foundation of all permanent progress in public education. The loan fund established by North Carolina has the germ of the best work possible of early accomplishment that philanthropists and legislators can undertake.

These facts tell in outline the story of the educational progress in North Carolina, as far as it can be told by brick, mortar, statutes and appropriations. These are the visible signs of the revival that has, like a living fire, touched the minds and hearts of the people of the state. But as the spirit is always superior to the material, these facts and figures cannot convey the full story of the wonderful progress that this generation has witnessed. That story will be found in the newer life of intellectual and industrial activity that dominates the South to-day and that will lead it into larger fields in the days that are to come.

North Carolina's contribution to the educational revival is found mainly within the state, for the true Tar-heel is ever mindful of the injunction, "Beginning at Jerusalem." Perhaps we stay there too long and preach too much only to the saints. But North Carolina has furnished educational leaders, not only for its own schools and colleges, but has furnished educational leaders also for the South and elsewhere. Page, of New York; Alderman, of Louisiana; Branson, of Georgia; Pell, of South Carolina; Barringer, of Virginia; Houston, of Texas, all prominently connected with the Southern Education Conference and its work, are natives of North Carolina, while Woodrow Wilson spent his boyhood in Wilmington; and Dabney and Claxton, of Tennessee; D. B. Johnson, of South Carolina; J. D. Eggleston, Jr., of Virginia, and other leaders in this movement, began the work of their early manhood and retained their citizen-

ship in North Carolina long enough to be indoctrinated with proper ideas of educational leadership. Its present governor, Charles B. Aycock, and Georgia's foremost citizen, Hoke Smith, were both born in North Carolina. Among public leaders in the educational progress of to-day, the names of these two North Carolinians "lead all the rest."

To-day, with this backward glance at what has been accomplished in spite of the negro burden, the swamps, and mountains, the sparseness of population, the lack of trained teachers, and poverty, North Carolinians, having come up out of great tribulations, and rejoicing that they have reached *Appi Forum*, thank God and take courage. That good state is happy in that, though the harvest is great, it is ripe for the sickle and the laborers are not few.

Among the causes of congratulation to-day is the fact that at last the South has the sympathy and the co-operation of the most patriotic and broad-minded men of the Republic—men who are moved by the highest motives and the purest patriotism in their interest in Southern education.

NEGRO EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

By DR. WALTER B. HILL, Chancellor of the University of Georgia

Why "in the South"? Why is the problem of negro education a Southern problem? Obviously because the negro is in the South. But why is he here? Why is it that nearly forty years after emancipation, with free right of egress, nine-tenths of the negroes are still found in the states in which they were once slaves and not in the states whose initiative made them free? Why is it that these eight millions of people who love to "travel on the cars" have not made the cheap and easy journey across the line? Why has there been no exodus, if there was near by a Canaan with no sea or wilderness between? The answer to this question, according to our local interpretation, is that the negro is in the South by his own choice; because he is better treated here than elsewhere; because his most important right—the right to make a living—is more completely secured. If these things were not true, it seems to us that there would be a Northern educational conference discussing at Philadelphia or Chicago the problem of negro education in the North or West.

The Confederate Negro.—Recently a group of Confederate veterans were recounting stories of the war. One of them told of a faithful body servant who had accompanied him to the field. The negro was captured by the Federal scouts and was given a place as cook for the colonel of a Federal regiment, with salary attached. He ran away from this cosy berth and returned to his master—bringing with him a sack of supplies and a box of the colonel's Havana cigars, on the plea that as he had been working for the colonel and the true owner had received no wages, something was due. Then another veteran in the group told a story. It was of a day of fierce battle, of an officer shot to pieces while leading his regiment in a desperate charge—the word passed back the line—and then a negro darting forward into the very crest of the battle and in the leaden hail of bullets bearing back the body of his wounded master, and afterwards nursing him into life. When these stories had been rehearsed with that fullness of detail which

was characteristic of the art of story-telling as practiced by the Southern gentleman of the olden time, one of the group, as if seized by a sudden inspiration, said: "Gentlemen, if I live to get to the Confederate Reunion at New Orleans next month, I am going to propose a monument. It is to be of black marble and to be erected in honor of the "Confederate nigger."

The object of this allusion has been to enable me to say that the duty of the South to negro education, whatever we may find that duty to be, is a duty to the children and grandchildren of the Confederate negro; and this phrase ought to include not only the faithful body-servant in war, but the old black mammy and the Uncle Remus who were objects of so much affection in every Southern household; and indeed all the negroes in the South who cared for and protected the wives and children of the soldiers at the front and who—strangest anomaly in history—fed by their labor the armies that were fighting against their freedom.

In September, 1902, a meeting of the county school superintendents of education in Georgia was held at Athens. It was the first of the series of similar conferences arranged by Dr. Buttrick. A place on the program was given to the subject of negro education, and Superintendent Gwaltney, of Rome, was appointed to lead the discussion. In the course of his opening remarks he said: "I shall begin by assuming that we are all lovers of the negro." As I heard his words, I could not avoid thinking how profoundly true they were, how naturally and cordially the superintendents accepted this definition of their attitude towards the subject; and at the same time I realized how these identical words, if they had fallen from the lips of a stranger, assuming the rôle of missionary, lecturer, or guardian, would have been liable to instant and hostile misinterpretation.

Another remark at the meeting which arrested attention was that of Superintendent Polhill, of Worth County, who, in speaking of the work at Tuskegee, said: "Booker Washington knows more about this matter than all of us put together."

The Tutelage of Slavery.—The beginning of the education of the negro was the tutelage of slavery. The South does not deny the abuses of slavery and she rejoices in the great conclusion that property in man is forever overthrown; but she contemplates with some complacency the fact that the tuition of slavery developed the

negro in a century and a half from the condition of the savage to a status where, in the judgment of those hostile to slavery, the negro was fitted for the privileges of American citizenship. No free civilized race ever made equal progress in emergence from barbarism in so short a time. The education of slavery was not in books, nor were books needed at the beginning. It was an education and discipline in labor and in practical ethics; in the virtues of order, fidelity, temperance and obedience. Religious instruction was not neglected. There was recently published a letter of a young Methodist minister in South Carolina who afterwards became a bishop of his church. The letter was written about 1840 and throws a sidelight on the state of opinion at the time. He referred to the fact that he had recently received an appointment to labor among the negroes and expressed his sense of being honored by it, saying: "I have observed that only those who are well thought of by the bishop and the brethren receive appointments among the negroes." Slavery was the first chapter, the longest, and up to the present time the most fruitful chapter, in the history of negro education.

Reconstruction Blunders.—The second chapter began shortly after emancipation and includes the blunders of the reconstruction period. The reaction against the past was natural. Luther said that "the human mind was like a drunken peasant on horseback—if you put him up on one side he will fall off on the other." As the teaching of books had been denied to the negro in slavery, so now it was assumed that the only education needed was to supply this omission and accordingly an effort was made in schools and colleges to insert into the mind of the negro race, as by a surgical operation, the culture for which the Anglo-Saxon race had been preparing through long centuries of growth. The results appeared to be disappointing to those who looked on the experiment with friendly eyes; and appeared in critical eyes in many instances grotesque. As the education of the negro under slavery had principally been the discipline of work, so now it was assumed that his training in industry would abide with him and that he needed no pedagogy in that direction. The result of this error was to create a body of opinion in the South that education so-called was spoiling the negro as a laborer and not fitting him for anything else. Both the mistakes above mentioned abounded until it was seen that the need of the negro race was not so much a reversal of that education

which began under slavery as a system that would supplement and develop it. Time forbids the definition and description of the new thought in education; but it is embodied in Hampton and Tuskegee as concrete examples. They are the pioneers blazing out the path and pointing the way. Their education is both academic and industrial, with the emphasis strongly on the latter, in view of present conditions and needs.

Finally the Southern Educational Conference and the Southern Education Board came into life by the natural and unstudied law of growth, and their unique mission has been to bring the problem of education at the South, including, of course, the education both of the whites and negroes, into the national consciousness in a rational form.

Nowhere has the wisdom of this movement been better exemplified than in the characteristic thought that while the problem affects the nation, it chiefly concerns and must be chiefly worked out by the people who are at closest range. If those of other sections wonder that we in the South hesitate to apply educational principles that seem truisms elsewhere, they may profitably remember that we are in immediate contact with the painful and depressing elements of the problem which do not meet their vision—vast shiftlessness, vice and crime. Despite all this, we will not be pessimists; we cannot quite be optimists, but we are left the healthy-minded and hopeful resource of being meliorists, with faith in God and in the improvability of all His creatures.

The Problem Remanded to the South.—The nation has in fact remanded the solution of the negro problem, including, of course, the problem of education, to the South. There were days when the Southern section of our country was threatened with Force bills and similar legislation. In those days our people feared that they would have cause to say to the Government, in the words of Grattan: "You have sown your laws like dragons' teeth and they have sprung up armed men." Happily, the danger was averted, but while it was threatening there were utterances in the South which might be gathered up from press, pulpit and platform literally by the millions, in which it was said that if the North would only let the South alone, the South would solve the problem in wisdom and in justice. These utterances were sincere and their fulfillment involves not only a plain duty, but also involves the strong point of the South, the

point of honor. The attitude of the people of the North at this juncture cannot be reasonably interpreted as a desertion of the negro; it is due, as Mr. Cleveland said, to a growing confidence in the sincerity and good faith of the "respectable white people of the South." There are some to be found who say, or at least imply, that the South cannot afford to do full justice to the negro in the matter of education. They affect to fear that the result of such a policy will be to bring the negro into dangerous competition with the white race. There is no surer way in which a member of that race can exhibit his unworthiness of the blood in his veins than to entertain an apprehension that the negro can so overcome racial characteristics and the advantage of a start of at least two thousand years as to endanger the supremacy of that race. In contradiction of the apprehension referred to, I would say that the only thing which the South cannot afford in its relation to the negro race, is injustice.

All history teaches that injustice injures and deteriorates the individual or nation that practices it, while on the other hand, it develops patience—the nerve of the soul—tenacity and strength in the man or the people upon whom it is inflicted. There is nothing new in this doctrine. Plato said: "Better is the case of him who suffers injustice than the case of him who does it." In "The Republic" he rises to this climax: "Injustice makes a man or a society the enemy of all just men and above all of the gods, whose friends are the just alone." This is a magnificent statement of the existence of a moral order in the world. No member of the white race who shares its instinct of self-preservation should be willing, even on selfish considerations, to see the moral order which rules in the world driven to take the part of the other race. This and this alone would endanger the supremacy of the white race. This will not happen: for the South is ready to bring to this problem not only a spirit of justice, but of tenderness. I do not mean ideal justice, for this would be impossible, all at once, between races that had lately sustained the relation of master and slave, but I mean such approximation to justice as is possible for sincere and good men under the limitations of the case. In claiming an element even of tenderness in the spirit of the South, I am aware that this is not easily understood by those of other sections who have dealt only with "casual servants, querulous, sensitive, and lodged for a day in

a sphere they resent"; but there is a tenderness born of old Southern traditions drawn in with mother's milk, a feeling which survived the unspeakable indignities of reconstruction, and will outlive the irritations of the present and future.

What the South Has Done.—The next proposition to be affirmed is that the South has done much for the education of the negro and will take no backward step in this direction. The high authority of the United States commissioner of education is cited in support of the fact that since 1870 the South has disbursed for negro education \$109,000,000 (Report of 1899-1900, Vol. 2, p. 2501). For every dollar contributed by the philanthropy of the North for this purpose, the South, out of her poverty, has contributed four dollars. It cannot be truthfully claimed that all the people of the Southern states are pleased with this situation. It must be frankly admitted that a very considerable number, though a minority, are restive under it. It can be asserted, however, that the leaders of thought among the people are the friends of negro education. This statement is sustained by a recent symposium in which the views of prominent Southern men were expressed. There have been some suggestions to limit the funds for negro education to the taxes raised from the property of the negroes. This suggestion I learn has been put forward in North Carolina, but has been overwhelmed with confusion. It commanded more support in Florida, but has been defeated. I recently received a letter from a leading public man in Georgia, one of the strongest members of the present general assembly, in which he said: "If you should attend the educational meeting in Richmond and the question of this legislation should be broached, you can safely say to the conference that this particular bill" (to limit the funds for negro education to the taxes raised from that race) "will never become a law."

To say that the South will take no backward step in this matter is to say that negro education will share in all the increase of public taxation from the rapidly developing wealth of the section. The policy of separate schools will, of course, be maintained; and it is gratifying that this is not only the settled purpose of the whites, but that the intelligent negroes are coming to see that any blending of the races would be between the higher types of their people and the lower types of the white race, and that co-education of the races or any other intermingling is not to be desired from the point of

view of the best interests of the negro race. A significant utterance was made at a recent state convention of county superintendents of education, in Macon, Ga., on April 14, 1903. The speaker was one of the ablest and most highly esteemed judges of the superior courts of the state. He advocated compulsory education, upon the ground that the doctrine of public education logically required this measure for its completion. He realized that the sensitive point in the discussion was the relation of the question to the negro.

By way of anticipating possible objections, he delicately intimated that doubtless in the actual execution of the law, white officials would be more zealous to enforce it among the whites than among the blacks, but he added that this policy could not be depended on to affect the case to any large extent, because the negroes are making more efforts than the whites for the education of their children. He referred to sections where illiteracy among the negroes was decreasing and where illiteracy among the whites was increasing. After considering the question in its various lights, the speaker boldly declared that in spite of all objections that might be raised on the score of the negro, he favored compulsory education.

Agricultural Education.—Negro education must be specialized to meet actual conditions. It must be adapted to meet industrial and agricultural needs. This does not mean that the three R's are not to be taught in the schools. The negro citizen needs primary education for the purposes described by Thomas Jefferson in his statement on this subject, which may be regarded as classic and final. Recently the largest and most successful farmer in Georgia, one who started thirty years ago without capital and has made himself a millionaire, who now works more than a thousand hands upon his place, and certainly knows as much as any one else on the subject of the negro laborer, was speaking about the kind of negro laborers who were the most valuable. He said emphatically: "I want a hand in the field to whom I can send a written inquiry or direction as to his work and who can return to me in writing an intelligent response." The common school education is not, therefore, to be supplanted; unquestionably it should be supplemented for the great masses of the negroes, with manual and agricultural training.

As far back as 1871, General Armstrong, a veritable seer, realized this truth in its application to the negro people. His words have recently been quoted by his worthy successor as still express-

ing the method and aim of the schools of 1902. He said: "The temporary salvation of the colored race for some time to come is to be won out of the ground." Mrs. Doubleday, in her plea for nature study, estimates that 85 per cent of those engaged in gainful occupations in the South are engaged in agriculture. If I knew any method of making these statistics sensational, I would adopt it in order to emphasize the tremendous and pathetic significance of the situation—four-fifths of all the people engaged in one form of earning a living and the education of this enormous number unrelated to their life-work! Not only unrelated in any helpful way; but in the past, the traditional method of training in the schools has actually tended to educate the children away from the soil. The illustrations in the text-books, both pictorial and otherwise, the heroes whose exploits affect the childish imagination, the description of countries by their capitals and great cities, the very "sums" that are given in the arithmetics, all tend to turn the child's heart from rural life to the city. Under normal conditions, the first kindling of childish ambition in a boy ought to be a stimulus to rise in his condition: in the case of the country boy, this stimulus presents itself in the form of an ambition to *get away from* his condition. The exodus from the country to the city cannot be arrested unless this whole tendency be changed and there must be found a new line of teaching which will fix the affection upon the soil. "Where their treasure is there will their hearts be also." If it be true that "the function of education in a democratic society is to lift the whole population to a higher level of intelligence and well-being," then the education which concerns the interests of 85 per cent of the population is of transcendent importance. My conviction is that the most urgent demand upon educational philanthropy and pedagogic genius in the South lies in the direction of relating education to the life and work of the agricultural masses.

Higher Education.—The foregoing contentions are not in antagonism to the higher education of the negro, or rather, to be exact, of the limited number who are capable of receiving and using for their own advantage and the advantage of their race the higher education. The fact that for so many years Northern philanthropy concerned itself exclusively with negro colleges in the South was unfortunate in its sectional implications; and yet we do not find it in our heart to begrudge one dollar of the millions that have been

given to negro institutions. The race must have its preachers and teachers—its leaders of thought. The higher education is necessary in order that the “lower” education suitable for the masses may be rationally planned and conducted. Those who are qualified for professional life as lawyers and physicians ought to have the opportunity for their training. It seems to me that the stoniest heart cannot withhold sympathy for the sad lot of the exceptionally gifted negro. His life, North or South, involves many painful experiences; but, for all that, no one would seek to suppress his education as a means of promoting his happiness. We cannot too often say with Dr. Curry: “Ignorance is not a remedy for anything.”

The most vivid concrete illustration of the progress of the negro in higher education was the Negro Young People's Christian and Educational Conference at Atlanta, August 6-10, 1902. It numbered delegates from all the Southern states. On the program were M. A.'s, Ph. D.'s, D. D.'s, and bishops. There were so many D. D.'s as to remind one of Richelieu's threat that he would make so many dukes in France that it would be equally a disgrace to be one and a disgrace not to be one. The program included all topics related to the development of the negro race. Many thousands attended. Although they filled the street cars to overflowing, crowding out the citizens, yet so admirable was the conduct of the crowds and so satisfied were the people of Atlanta with the high character and usefulness of the conference that they cheerfully submitted to the inconvenience, and the city dailies were unstinted in their praises of the conference, the speakers, and the audiences. A pessimist who doubted the progress of the negro race would have been convinced against his will by witnessing the convention and reflecting that only thirty-seven years had elapsed since these people were unlettered slaves. If I were asked to point out the high-water mark of negro progress, I should not hesitate to say that it was at this Atlanta conference, at the point where, under the general topic “What Improvements Can be Made in the Religious Worship of the Churches,” the subject of revivals was under review.

To be sure, there was no one there to agree with Dr. G. Stanley Hall that conversion is a phenomenon of adolescence; or to analyze it psychologically in connection with the subliminal consciousness, as Professor William James has recently done in his “Varieties of Religious Experience”; but while the discussion assumed the pres-

ence of the Divine element in religious life, it was frankly recognized that nervous excitement played too large a part in negro revivals and its disturbing influence was unanimously deprecated.

In the education of the negro, provision should be made for ethical teaching. The objections both from evangelical and non-religious sources to the introduction of moral training in the public schools are rapidly diminishing in intensity. This topic cannot be developed here; but the reasons why ethical education is specially needed by the negro lie on the surface of the case.

Uncle Tom's Cabins.—Three periods of the history of negro education may be expressed in terms of the title of the book which had so great an influence on the slavery issue. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" may not be read by future generations, but it will always be referred to as a great historical document. For that reason I am glad that in its pages only one cruel slaveholder is portrayed and he was not a Southern man. The period of slavery, then, may be described as Uncle Tom in His Owner's Cabin.

In the second period we see Uncle Tom without a Cabin. This period presents the era of reconstruction, when alien adventurers foisted into power on the shoulders of the black masses, played such fantastic tricks before high heaven in the name of government as the world has never witnessed since the days of Masaniello. During this period the negro was more nearly a slave of selfish and cruel masters than ever before. He was promised forty acres and a mule, but he got neither these things nor any value received; so that the era is not inaptly described as Uncle Tom without a Cabin.

The third era is that which is being ushered in under the wise leadership of Booker Washington, when the negro is becoming a home-maker, bound to the soil, a good citizen. There is no race problem as between the good citizens of the South among the whites and the good citizens of the South among the blacks. The solution then of the negro problem so far as we can see it within that immediate future which may be forecast from the past and the present, and beyond the limits of which it is idle for us to seek to penetrate, is Uncle Tom in His Own Cabin, or I should prefer to say, in his own Home.

PERSONAL NOTES

University of Arkansas.—Dr. Charles Hillman Brough, formerly professor of economics and sociology in Mississippi College, was recently elected to the same chair in the University of Arkansas. Dr. Brough is a Mississippian by birth and is twenty-seven years of age. He received his bachelor's degree from Mississippi College in 1894, and afterwards pursued a two years' law course in the University of Mississippi. In 1897 he held the fellowship in economics at Johns Hopkins University, receiving his doctor's degree from that institution in 1898, and in 1902 he received the degree of LL. B. from the University of Mississippi.

Dr. Brough has written:

"Irrigation in Utah." 1898.

"The History of Banking in Mississippi."

"Taxation in Mississippi." Published as part of an extra volume of the Johns Hopkins Studies.

Bowdoin College.—Dr. Roswell C. McCrea¹ has recently been appointed Daniel B. Fayerweather professor of political economy and sociology at Bowdoin College.

University of Colorado.—Dr. Frederic Logan Paxson has received the appointment as assistant professor of history in the University of Colorado. He was born February 23, 1877, at Philadelphia, Pa., receiving his early education in the Friends' Central School of that city. Dr. Paxson entered the University of Pennsylvania in 1894, receiving the degree of B. S. in 1898; 1898-1899 he was scholar in history and economics. During the year 1901-1902 he studied at Harvard, receiving the degree of A. M. in 1902. From 1902-1903 Dr. Paxson was Harrison fellow in American history in the University of Pennsylvania, from which institution he received his Ph. D. degree in 1903. He was instructor in history at the Michigan Military Academy, Orchard Lake, 1899-1900, and at the Blee Military Academy, Macon, Mo., 1900-1901. He is a member of the American Historical Association and the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Dr. Paxson has written:

"Franchise Legislation in Missouri." Annals of the American Academy, May, 1901.

"The Independence of the South American Republics: A Study in Recognition and Foreign Policy." 1903.

University of Denver.—Dr. Frank Hunt Hurd Roberts has been appointed professor of history in the University of Denver. He was born April 1, 1869, at Mt. Vernon, Knox County, O. His early education was obtained in the public schools of Knox County. In 1892 he received the degree of Ph. B. and B. Ped. from the Ohio University, A. M. from Kenyon College in 1896 and Ph. D. from the University of Denver in 1903. Dr.

¹Vol. xx, p. 634, November, 1902.

Roberts has been principal of High School, New Vienna, O., superintendent of schools in three Ohio cities, professor of education University of Wyoming, assistant professor of mathematics Wyoming State Agricultural College, and principal of the Wyoming State Normal School. He is a member of the American Historical Society.

Dr. Roberts has published:

"A Comparative Study of the Governments of Wyoming and the United States."

"Civil Government of Ohio."

"Civil Government of Wyoming."

Harvard University.—Dr. Charles J. Bullock² has been made assistant professor of political economy at Harvard University, having held the chair of Orvin Sage professor of political economy at Williams College since 1902. Since September, 1899, Dr. Bullock has written:

"Essays in the Monetary History of the United States." 1900.

"Trust Literature: A Survey and Criticism." Quarterly Journal of Economics, February, 1901.

"Direct Taxes and the Federal Constitution." Yale Review, February-August, 1901.

"Trusts and Public Policy." Atlantic Monthly, June, 1901.

"The Theory of the Balance of Trade." North American Review, July, 1901.

"The Variation of Productive Forces." Quarterly Journal of Economics, August, 1902.

"The Growth of Federal Expenditures." Political Science Quarterly, March, 1903.

"Concentration of Banking Interests in the United States." Atlantic Monthly, August, 1903.

Dr. Edwin Francis Gay has been advanced to the position of assistant professor of economics in Harvard University. He was born in Detroit, Mich., October 27, 1867, was educated in private schools abroad and in the Ann Arbor High School. He entered the University of Michigan in 1886, receiving the degree of A. B. in 1890. Dr. Gay then went abroad, studying in the Universities of Leipzig and Berlin from 1890-1894. After this he spent several years in research in the London Record Office and the British Museum. In 1902 he received from the University of Berlin the degree of Ph. D.

Dr. Gay published a paper in the Transactions of the Royal Statistical Society, Volume XIV, and has in press in Germany a monograph to appear as one of Schmoller's Forschungen.

Indiana University.—Dr. William A. Rawles,³ who was made assistant professor of economics and social science in Indiana University in 1902, has just been advanced to the rank of associate professor of economics and social science.

Kansas State Agricultural College.—Mr. Ralph Ray Price has been elected to the chair of history and economics in the Kansas State Agricultural

²Vol. xiv, p. 224, September, 1899.

³Vol. xiv, p. 349, November, 1899.

College, Manhattan. He was born on March 6, 1872, in Douglas County, Kansas, where he obtained his early education. He received the degree of A. B. from Baker University, Baldwin, in 1896, and M. A. from the University of Kansas in 1898. He attended the summer sessions of the University of Chicago in 1899, Wisconsin, 1901, and Cornell, 1902. Mr. Price was instructor in English history in the University of Kansas, 1897-1901; teacher of history and civics, Lawrence High School, 1898-1901, and Ishpeming High School, Michigan, 1901-1902; teacher of history in Rockford High School, Illinois, 1902-1903.

University of Minnesota.—Dr. Frank L. McVey, who has held the chair of professor of private economics since June, 1900, has had his title changed to professor of political economy. The last notice concerning Professor McVey appeared in *THE ANNALS* for September, 1900,⁴ since which time he has written:

"*Shipping Subsidies.*" *Journal of Political Economy*, December, 1900.

"*The History and Government of Minnesota.*" 1901.

"*The Frye Bill.*" *Yale Review*, May, 1902.

"*The Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Subsidies.*" *Journal of Political Economy*, June, 1903.

Montana State Normal College.—Dr. Henry Huntington Swain has been made professor of economics and sociology in the Montana State Normal College. He was born in Providence, R. I., March 29, 1863, and educated in the public schools of Fairfield, Ia., and Beloit, Wis. He received from Beloit College in 1884 the degree of A. B. During the years 1893-1894 and 1895-1897 he was a student at the University of Wisconsin, receiving the degree of Ph. D. in 1897. During 1895 he attended the University of Chicago. Dr. Swain was headmaster, Markham Academy, Milwaukee, in 1887; professor of economics and history, Yankton College, 1887-1895; fellow in economics, University of Wisconsin, 1893-1894, during which time he had leave of absence from Yankton College; University Extension lecturer in economics, Wisconsin, 1895-1897; professor of history and economics, Montana State Normal School, 1898-1901. In 1903 the Montana State Normal School was changed to the Montana State Normal College, of which Dr. Swain is president. He is a member of the American Economic Association and the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Dr. Swain's published works are:

"*A Forward Move in Historical Study.*" *Kingdom*, February 3, 1893.

"*The Teaching of Civics.*" *American Journal of Politics*, July, 1894.

"*The Economics of the Department Store.*" *Kingdom*, March 19, 1897.

"*The Church Fathers on the Nature of Property.*" *Bibliotheca Sacra*, October, 1897.

"*Economic Aspects of Railroad Receiverships.*" 1898.

"*Assessment of Real Estate.*" *Chicago Economist*, February, 1898.

"*Comparative Statistics of Railroad Rates.*" *American Statistical Association*, September, 1898.

"*The Chicago Trust Conference.*" *Progress*, October, 1899.

⁴Vol. xvi, p. 280.

"*Trusts and a Stable Currency.*" Proceedings of the Chicago Conference on Trusts, 1899.

"*Postal Savings Banks.*" Journal of the Switchmen's Union of North America, April, 1900.

"*Gold Production Wholly Speculative.*" Money, May, 1900.

"*Postal Telegraph.*" Journal of the Switchmen's Union of North America, June, 1900.

"*Postal Express.*" Ibid., September, 1900.

"*Local Government in Montana.*" Bulletin of the Montana State Normal School, March, 1901; August and October, 1902.

"*Montana Civics.*" 1903.

University of Pennsylvania.—Dr. Herman V. Ames³ has been appointed assistant professor in American history in the University of Pennsylvania. Since 1897 he has been instructor and lecturer in history in the University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Ames has held the following offices in educational or historical societies:

Secretary of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools for the Middle States and Maryland since 1900 to date.

Member of the executive committee of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States since 1902.

Adjunct member of the Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Association, 1900-1902, and chairman of the same commission since 1902.

Chairman of the committee on free public lectures given by the University of Pennsylvania in the public schools of Philadelphia.

Since 1896 Dr. Ames has published the following:

"*A Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature on Additional Amendments to the Federal Constitution, 1790.*" with notes. The American Historical Review, Vol. II, No. 1.

"*The Proposed Amendments of the Constitution of the United States during the First Century of Its History.*" (Awarded the American Historical Association Prize, 1896.) Washington, 1897. pp. 442. (American Historical Association Report for 1896, Vol. II.)

"*Outline of Lectures on American Political and Institutional History during the Colonial and Revolutionary Periods.*" With references for collateral reading. Philadelphia, 1898. Pp. 68.

The same. Revised edition, Philadelphia, 1902. Pp. 95.

"*The X Y Z Letters.*" (Translations and Reprints. Vol. VI, No. 2. Edited with Professor John Bach McMaster.) Philadelphia, 1899.

"*Pennsylvania and the English Government, 1699-1704.*" The Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography, April, 1900. Pp. 61-80.

"*State Documents on Federal Relations: The States and the United States.*" Edited with notes:

No. 1. "*Interpretation of the Constitution During the First Two Decades of Its History, 1789-1809.*" Philadelphia, 1900.

³ Vol. viii, p. 358, September, 1896.

No. 2. "*State Rights and the War of 1812.*" (1809-1815.) Philadelphia, 1900.

No. 3. "*The Reserved Rights of the States and the Jurisdiction of Federal Courts, 1819-1832.*" Philadelphia, 1901.

No. 4. "*The Tariff and Nullification, 1820-1832.*" Philadelphia, 1902.

No. 5. "*Slavery and the Constitution.*" In preparation.

"*Report on the Public Archives of Pennsylvania.*" (With Dr. L. S. Shim-mell.) Annual Report of the American Historical Association, 1900. Vol. II, pp. 267-293.

"*Report on the Public Archives of the City and County of Philadelphia.*" (With Dr. Albert E. McKinley.) *Ibid.* for 1901. Vol. II, 231-344.

"*Editor of the Annual Proceedings of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools for the Middle States and Maryland, for the Years 1900, 1901 and 1902.*" Albany, N. Y., 1901, 1902, 1903.

Dr. William E. Lingelbach has been advanced to the position of assistant professor of modern history in the University of Pennsylvania. He was born at Hamburg, Ontario, Canada, March 17, 1871, and attended the local grammar school and the Collegiate Institute at Stratford, Ontario. He entered the University of Toronto in 1891, receiving the degree of A. B. in 1894. From 1894-1895 he was fellow at the University of Toronto; 1895-1896 graduate student at the University of Leipzig, and from 1897-1898 at the University of Chicago; 1899-1900 Harrison fellow in history at the University of Pennsylvania, from which institution he took his Ph. D. degree in 1901. Dr. Lingelbach was instructor in history at the Orchard Lake Military Academy, 1898-1899, and instructor in modern history at the University of Pennsylvania, 1900-1903. He is a member of the American Historical Association, the Pennsylvania Historical Society and the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Dr. Lingelbach has published the following works:

"*The Doctrine and Practice of Intervention in Europe.*" *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, July, 1900.

"*The Laws, Customs and Ordinances of the Merchant Adventurers of England.*" 1901.

"*The Internal Organization of the Merchant Adventurers Society.*" *Transactions of the Royal Historical Society*, 1902; since published separately with bibliography.

Tufts College, College Hill, Mass.—Mr. William Hyde Price has been appointed lecturer in economics at Tufts College. He was born at Titusville, Crawford County, Pa., February 21, 1880. He attended the high school at Jamestown, N. Y., entering Tufts College in 1897 and receiving his A. M. degree in 1901. In 1902 Mr. Price received the degree of A. M. from Harvard, where he has since carried on graduate work. He is a member of the American Economic Association.

University of Vermont.—Mr. Henry Bigelow Shaw has received an appointment as instructor in commercial law in the University of Vermont. He was born in Burlington, Chittenden County, Vt., November 30, 1873. His early education was obtained in the public schools of Burlington. In 1892

Mr. Shaw entered the University of Vermont, receiving the degree of Ph. B. in 1896. The degree of LL. B. was conferred upon him by Harvard in 1900. From 1900-1902 he practiced law in Detroit, also in Burlington.

Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.—Mr. Walter Robinson Smith has been appointed instructor in history at Washington University. He was born January 31, 1875, at Pratherville, Clay County, Mo., and received his early education in the public school of Excelsior Springs, Mo. He attended the Missouri Valley College at Marshall from 1894-1899, receiving the degree of Ph. B. from that institution in 1899. Mr. Smith was a student at the University of Chicago from 1900-1902, taking the degree of Ph. M. in 1901 and holding a fellowship in history, 1901-1902. During 1902-1903 he studied at Harvard. Mr. Smith was also instructor in history in the Missouri Valley College, 1898-1899, and principal of Eastwood School, Marshall, Mo., 1899-1900.

Wells College.—Dr. Agnes Hunt has accepted the position of instructor in history at Wells College, Aurora, N. Y. She was born April 1, 1876, at Manchester, N. H., and received her early education in the public schools of that place. She entered Smith College in 1893, graduating in 1897 with the degree of A. B. Dr. Hunt was a student at Yale University from 1897-1900, receiving the Ph. D. degree in 1900. Since 1900 she has been teaching in the College for Women, Western Reserve University. Dr. Hunt was also a resident and worker at the Goodrich Social Settlement of Cleveland. She is a member of the American Historical Association.

Dr. Hunt this fall will publish a book on the "*Provincial Committees of Safety in the American Revolution.*"

West Virginia University.—Mr. Walter L. Fleming* has received the appointment of associate professor of history at West Virginia University. Professor Fleming has recently published:

"*The Churches of Alabama During the Civil War and Reconstruction.*" Gulf States Historical Magazine, September, 1902.

"*Military Government in Alabama, 1865-1866.*" American Historical Magazine, April, 1903.

"*Military Government in Alabama under the Reconstruction Acts.*" American Historical Magazine, July, 1903.

"*The Peace Movement in Alabama During the Civil War. I. Party Politics, II. The Peace Society.*" South Atlantic Quarterly, April and July, 1903.

"*The Prescript of Ku Klux Klan.*" Publications of the Southern Historical Association, September, 1903.

"*Formation of the Union League in Alabama.*" Gulf States Historical Magazine, September, 1903.

Yale University.—Dr. William Bacon Bailey has received the appointment of assistant professor in political economy at Yale College. He was born May 7, 1873, at Springfield, Mass., and received his early education at the Springfield Collegiate Institute and the Williston Seminary, Easthampton, Mass. Dr. Bailey entered Yale College in 1890, receiving from that institution

* Vol. xx, p. 628, November, 1902.

the degree of B. A., and from 1894 to 1896 he pursued graduate study there, receiving the degree of Ph. D. in the latter year. He was assistant in political economy at Yale during the year 1897-1898. During the next five years he was instructor in statistics, and also from 1901 to the present time instructor in sociology at the Yale Divinity School. He is a member of the American Economic Association.

Dr. Bailey has written:

"Some of the Contributions of Militancy to the Industrial Arts." *Yale Review*, November, 1897.

"Personal Budgets of Unmarried Persons." *Yale Review*, May, 1901.

"Suicide in the United States, 1897-1901." *Yale Review*, May, 1903.

Dr. Guy S. Callender has been appointed professor of political economy at the Sheffield Scientific School, of Yale University. He has recently published in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* an article on "*The Transportation and Banking Enterprises of the States in Relation to the Growth of Corporations.*"

Dr. James Elbert Cutler has recently been appointed instructor in social science at Yale University. Dr. Cutler was born January 24, 1876, at Princeville, Ill., and attended the public school of that place and the State Preparatory School at Boulder, Col. He entered the University of Colorado in 1896 and obtained from that institution the degree of B. A. in 1900. From 1900-1903 he was a graduate student at Yale University, obtaining in 1903 the degree of Ph. D. During Dr. Cutler's senior year in the University of Colorado he filled a vacancy for six months as instructor in English in the State Preparatory School of Colorado and during 1902-1903 he was assistant to Professor W. G. Sumner at Yale University. He also was secretary of the Anthropology Club at Yale University during 1902-1903.

Dr. Cutler has written an article on "*Tropical Acclimatization*" in the *American Anthropologist*, July-September, 1902.

Mr. Hugh Rankin has been appointed assistant in economics at Yale University. Mr. Rankin was born in May, 1881, at Nassau, N. Y., and obtained his early education in the public and private schools of that place. He entered Yale College and received the degree of B. A. in 1903.

IN ACCORDANCE with our custom we give below a list of the students in Political and Social Science and allied subjects on whom the degree of Doctor of Philosophy was conferred at the close of or during the last academic year.*

University of Chicago.—Charles Criswell Arbutnot, S. B. Thesis: *The Development of the Corporation and the Entrepreneur Function.*

*Vol. xvi, p. 273, September, 1900.

*See ANNALS, vol. i, p. 203, for academic year, 1889-90; vol. ii, p. 253, for 1890-91; vol. iii, p. 241, for 1891-92; vol. iv, p. 312 and p. 466, for 1892-93; vol. v, p. 282 and p. 410, for 1893-94; vol. vi, p. 300 and p. 482, for 1894-95; vol. viii, p. 364, for 1895-96; vol. x, p. 256, for 1896-97; vol. xii, p. 262 and p. 411, for 1898-99; vol. xiv, p. 227, for 1899-1900; vol. xvi, p. 283, for 1900-01; vol. xviii, p. 306, for 1901-02; vol. xx, p. 406, for 1902-03.

Ralph Charles Henry Catterall, A. B. Thesis: *The Second United States Bank.*

Regina Katherine Crandall, A. B. Thesis: *Genet's Mission.*

Elmer Cummings Griffith, A. B. Thesis: *The Rise and Development of the Gerrymander.*

Stephen Butler Leacock, A. B. Thesis: *The Doctrine of Laissez Faire.*

Jeremiah Simeon Young, A. M. Thesis: *The Cumberland Road.*

Columbia University.—Horace Mann Conaway, A. M. Thesis: *The Origin of the First French Republic.*

Alvin Saunders Johnson, A. M. Thesis: *Rent in Modern Economic Theory.*

Samuel Peter Orth, S. B. Thesis: *Centralization of Administration in Ohio.*

William A. Rawles, A. M. Thesis: *Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Indiana.*

Robert Perry Shepherd, A. M. Thesis: *Turgot and the Six Edicts.*

William Roy Smith, A. M. Thesis: *South Carolina: A Royal Province.*

David Yancey Thomas, A. M. Thesis: *Military Government in the United States Prior to the Civil War.*

Stephen Francis Weston, A. M. Thesis: *Justice in Taxation.*

Cornell University.—Robert Clarkson Brooks, A. B. Thesis: *The History of the Street and Rapid Transit Railways of New York City.*

George Matthew Dutcher, A. B. Thesis: *The Deputies on Mission During the Reign of Terror.*

Edwin Walter Kemmerer, A. B. Thesis: *Money and Credit Instruments in Their Relation to General Prices.*

Harvard University.—George Hubbard Blakeslee, A. M. Thesis: *The History of the Anti-Masonic Party.*

Augustus Hunt Shearer, A. M. Thesis: *The History of Political Parties in Pennsylvania, 1776-1790.*

Illinois Wesleyan University.—Charles M. Olmstead, A. M. Thesis: *The Spanish-American War.*

Edwin Andrew Palmer, S. B., A. M. Thesis: *Woman as a Wage Earner.*

Adam Pickett, Ph. M. Thesis: *The Anti-Slavery Movement Prior to 1890.*

Johns Hopkins University.—Elbert Jay Benton, A. B. Thesis: *The Wabash Trade Route in the Development of the Old Northwest.*

Yukimasa Hattori. Thesis: *The Foreign Commerce of Japan since the Restoration.*

Roland Jessop Moulford, A. B. Thesis: *The Political Theories of Alexander Hamilton.*

University of Michigan.—Kakujiro Akamatsu, A. B. Thesis: *The Financial Development of Japan since 1868.*

Harrison S. Smalley, A. B. Thesis: *The Legal Aspect of Railroad Control.*

University of Minnesota.—John Copeland, A. M. Thesis: *The Constituent Elements of the Population of the State of Minnesota.*

University of Nebraska.—Charles S. Lobingier, A. M., LL. B. Thesis: *Ratification of State Constitutions of the United States.*

University of Pennsylvania.—Henry Reed Burch, S. B. Thesis: *Conditions Affecting the Suffrage in Colonies.*

Christian Carl Carstens, A. M. Thesis: *Endowments: A Study of Certain American Bequests.*

Carl Kelsey, A. B. Thesis: *The Negro as an Industrial Factor.*

Edith Katherine Lyle, M. L. Thesis: *The Work of the Bishops in England in the Fourteenth Century.*

Frederic Logan Paxson, S. B. Thesis: *The Independence of the Spanish South-American Republics.*

Helen Gertrude Preston, Ph. B. Thesis: *Rural Conditions in the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem.*

George Winfield Scott, A. B., LL. B. Thesis: *The Law of International Private Claims.*

Joseph Russell Smith, S. B. Thesis: *The Organization of Commerce.*

University of Wisconsin.—Anna Yeomans Reed, A. M. Thesis: *The Revolution in Hawaii.*

Margaret Anna Schaffner, A. M. Thesis: *The Labor Contract with Special Reference to Collective Bargaining in the United States.*

Henry Charles Taylor, S. M. Thesis: *The Decline of Land-Owning Farmers in England.*

Yale University.—James Elbert Cutler, A. B. Thesis: *Lynch Law: An Investigation into the History of Lynching in the United States.*

William Spence Robertson, B. L. Thesis: *Francisco de Miranda and the Revolutionizing of Spanish America.*

FOR THE academic year 1903-04, appointments to fellowships and post-graduate scholarships have been made in the leading American colleges, as follows:

Bryn Mawr College.—*Fellowship in History*, Grace Albert, A. M. *Scholarships, in Economics*, Sara Henry Stites, A. M.; *in History*, Helen Henry Hodge, A. M.

University of Chicago.—*University Fellowships, in History*, Frances Gardiner Davenport, Marcus Wilson Jernegan, Edward Benjamin Krehbiel, William Ray Manning, George Lane Melton; *in Political Economy*, Edith Abbott, William Jett Lauck, John Giffin Thompson, Murray Shipley Wildman; *in Political Science*, Frederick Dennison Bramhall, Walter Fairleigh Dodd, Ira Calvert Hamilton.

Columbia University.—*University Fellowships, in American History*, Paul Leland Haworth, A. M., J. Homer Reed, A. B.; *in European History*, Ralph Barlow Page, A. M.; *in Economics*, Charles Emil Stangeland, A. M.; *in Sociology*, Allen Barber Eaton, Ph. B., A. M.; *in Statistics*, David Laforest Wing, S. B. *Honorary Fellowships, in European History*, William Kenneth

Boyd, A. M.; in *Sociology*, Michael Marks Davis, Jr., A. B.; *Schiff Fellowship*, Preserved Smith, A. M.; *President's University Scholarships*, in *American History*, Joseph Gregoire de Roulhac Hamilton, A. M.; in *Comparative Jurisprudence*, William Underhill Moore, A. M., LL. B.; in *Economics*, Harry Theodore Johnson, A. B.; *University Scholarships*, in *American History*, Austin Baxter Keep, A. M., Robert Livingston Schuyler, A. B.; in *Constitutional Law*, Charles Grove Haines, A. B.; in *Economics*, Eugene Ewald Agger, A. M., Edward Hatton Davis, S. B.; in *European History*, Adam Franklin Ross, Ph. B., A. M.; in *Finance*, Guy Edward Snider, B. L., A. M.; in *Political Science*, Henry Lorenzo Janes, B. L., LL. M.; in *Sociology*, Tokichi Kamada, A. B.; *Curtis University Scholarship*, in *Economics*, Mabel Atkinson, A. M.

Cornell University.—*President White Fellowships*, in *History*, Daniel Chauncey Knowlton, A. B.; in *Political Science*, Willard Eugene Hotchkiss, Ph. B., A. M.; *Fellowships*, in *American History*, Ruth Bently, A. B.; in *Political Economy*, Albert Charles Muhse, A. M., George Pendleton Watkins, A. B.; *University Graduate Scholarship*, in *History*, Albert Ten Eyck Olmstead, A. B.

Harvard University.—*Ozias Goodwin Memorial Fellowship in Constitutional Law*, Walter Harold Claflin, A. M.; *Henry Bromfield Rogers Memorial Fellowship*, Carleton Ames Wheeler, A. B.; *Ozias Goodwin Memorial Fellowship in History*, Emerson David Fite, A. B.; *Rogers Fellowship in History*, Roland Greene Maher, A. M.; *Henry Lee Memorial Fellowship in Political Economy*, George Randall Lewis, A. B.; *Robert Treat Paine Fellowships in Social Science*, Edwin De Turck Bechtel, A. B., Frank Harold Lemont, A. B.; *Thayer Scholarship in History and Government*, Walter James Shepard, A. B.; *Townsend Scholarship in History*, Frederic Austin Ogg, A. M.; *University Scholarship in History*, William Chauncey Rice, A. M.; *Austin (Special) Scholarship in Political Economy*, Selden Osgood Martin, A. B.; *Thayer Scholarship in Political Economy*, Edmund Thornton Miller, A. M.; *University Scholarship in Political Economy*, Joseph Clarence Hemmon, A. B.; *Austin Scholarship in Sociology*, Herbert Adolphus Miller, A. M.

University of Illinois.—*University Fellowships*, in *Economics*, L. W. Zartman, A. B.; in *History*, O. N. Dickerson, A. B.

Johns Hopkins University.—*Fellowships*, in *History*, Porter Hollis, A. B.; in *Political Economy*, William Kirk, A. B.; in *Political Science*, James Martin Wright, A. B.; *Hopkins Scholarships*, O. P. Chitwood, A. B., H. W. Early, A. B., H. J. Eckenrode, A. B., H. E. Flack, A. M., H. M. Wagstaff, Ph. B.

University of Missouri.—*Fellowships*, in *Economics*, William T. Nordin, A. B.; in *Political Science and Public Law*, Jacob Chosnoff, A. B.; in *Sociology*, Charles H. Edmondson, A. B.

University of Pennsylvania.—*Harrison Fellowships*, in *American History*, Isaac Joslin Cox, A. B.; in *European History*, Arthur Guy Terry, Ph. M.; *Moore Fellowship in European History*, Ethel Elizabeth Mudie,

A. B.; *Harrison Scholarship in Economics*, Ferdinand Harry Graser, S. B.; *University Scholarships, in European History*, H. C. Bell, W. N. Shuman, Malcolm Graeme Thomas, A. M.; *in Political Science*, Walter Edison Kruesi, S. B.; *in Sociology*, James Bruce Byall, S. B.

Princeton University.—*Boudinot Fellowship in History*, Henry George Weston Young, A. B.; *South East Club University Fellowship in Social Science*, Karl Telford Frederick, A. B.

Syracuse University.—*Mantange Fellowship in Social Science*, Mabel Carter Rhoades, Ph. B.

University of Wisconsin.—*Honorary Fellowships, in Economics*, John Franklin Engle, Ph. D., George Reuben Sikes, A. B.; *in History*, Albert Cook Myers, M. L.; *University Fellowships, in American History*, Arthur Clinton Boggess, A. B.; *in Economics*, Arthur Sargent Field, A. B.; *in European History*, Richard Frederick Scholz, A. B.; *in Political Science*, John Walter Gannaway, A. B.; *Scholarships, in American History*, Homer C. Hockett, B. L.; *in Economics*, Helen Laura Sumner, A. B.; *in Political Science*, Chester Lloyd Jones, B. L.

Yale University.—*Eldridge Fellowship in Economics and History*, William L. Patterson, A. B.; *Foote Fellowships, in Economics*, Avard Longley Bishop, A. B.; *in History*, George Edward Woodbine, A. B.; *Douglass Fellowship in Political and Social Science*, Hugh Rankin, A. B.; *Buckley Fellowship in History*, Anna H. Abel, A. M.; *Fellowships in Economics, Social Science and History*, Gilbert G. Benjamin, Ph. B., Fred R. Fairchild, A. B., William C. Rice, A. M., Lucy E. Textor, Ph. B., A. M.; *Scholarships, in Economics, Social Science and History*, Walter M. Adriance, A. B., Luther Anderson, A. B., Harry Henderson Clark, Peter T. Dondlinger, A. B., Karl K. Kawakami, A. B., Otijero Matsuo, Conrad A. Peterson, A. B., Carl F. Schulz, A. B., Herman J. Thorstenberg, A. B., Clinton F. Zerwick, A. B.

BOOK DEPARTMENT

NOTES

THE EDITOR OF "Epoch-Making Papers in United States History" has collected a series of the most important American state papers from the Declaration of Independence to Lincoln's Gettysburg address, and accompanies these with an introduction and some thirty pages of notes. His object is to prepare his collection for use in the public schools, and so to render the pupils more familiar with those documents of American history that may truly be characterized as "epoch-making." The volume seems admirably adapted for use in the upper grades of school work.

"THE MANUFACTURE AND PROPERTIES OF IRON AND STEEL"¹ is a supplement to "The Manufacture and Properties of Structural Steel," by the same author, published in 1896. It aims to serve two purposes: (1) To present in readable form the important technical facts of the iron and steel industry, and (2) to discuss the question of international competition. In Parts I and II of the volume, the principal topics treated are the blast furnace, the acid and basic Bessemer and open-hearth processes of steel making, the question of fuel, the heat treatment of steel, the methods of testing steel, and the effect of various elements upon the physical properties of steel. In Part III the position of the leading factors in the world's iron and steel trade is considered, the industry in the United States being compared with that of the iron-producing countries of Europe. The book contains a large amount of statistical matter, and Part III gives an accurate description of the iron and steel industry of the world, this being on the whole more satisfactory than anything hitherto published. The book will be found of great service to the teacher of economics, as well as to all those who are interested, as investors or observers, in the steel trade. Its value to the engineer has been proven by the wide acceptance of the author's former work.

THE SIXTH VOLUME in the Sociological Year-Books, so ably edited by Professor Émile Durkheim, of the University of Bordeaux, has appeared under the title "L'Année Sociologique" (1901-1902),² and contains much valuable and interesting material, fully sustaining the reputation for high-grade work which the earlier numbers of this series have obtained. The usual plan has

¹ Edited by Marshall Stewart Brown. Pp. vi, 207. Price, \$0.25. New York and London: The Macmillan Company, 1903.

² By Harry Huse Campbell. Pp. xxxi, 862. Price, \$5.00. New York: The Engineering and Mining Journal, 1903.

³ Pp. 614. Price 12.50 fr. Paris: Felix Alcan, 1903.

been followed, and the first part of the volume is devoted to two original studies covering one hundred and twenty-two pages. The first of these is by the editor himself, in collaboration with Mr. M. Mauss, and treats of the primitive forms of classification, that is, of how human beings develop the idea of group-action, of organization, implying the recognition of authority and the principle of co-operation in the attainment of definite ends. The usual view of psychologists and logicians has been that this is an innate faculty of the understanding. The view taken in this monograph is that these forms are determined through a sort of process of imitation from the form of society itself, that is, the way in which human beings group themselves and the manner of their divisions and sub-divisions, for the most elementary and general collective actions will be found running through every form of collective work, and is determined by the same general considerations that determine such fundamental concepts as those of time and space.

The second monograph presents a general review of the most recent theories of the division of labor, considered both as an economic and social principle. It is by Mr. C. Bouglé, whose works on the social sciences in Germany and on ideas of equality are well known.

The second part, covering 460 pages, contains an analysis of all the important books, monographs, and scientific papers on sociological topics which appeared during the year. This analysis is grouped under seven sections, general sociology (sub-divided into method, social philosophy, ethnological psychology, history of civilization, and history of sociology), religious sociology, juridical and moral sociology, criminology, economic sociology, morphological sociology, and, finally, a miscellaneous section with each of the foregoing sections, containing many sub-divisions.

"THE STORY OF A GRAIN OF WHEAT"⁴ is an account of an industrial process or, rather, of a series of processes, made vivid by language and style that bring to description the relief of narrative and romance. In this portrayal a human interest is engaged which is as universal as the desire for bread. The history of wheat is made a historical presentation of human condition during the tardy development of enlightened production; the "black bread" period, the "yellow bread" period and the "white bread" period, typify social environments which produced these forms of food. It is a successful attempt to popularize exact knowledge—the results of solemn scientific research.

MR. JOSEPH ELKINTON is to be commended for his work, "The Doukhobors."⁵ It is seldom that a work "intended as an appeal" is reliable historically or of special interest to the general reader. In both of these respects Mr. Elkinton's work is an exception. His portrayal of the conditions which gave rise to the "Russian Quakers" and of their pioneer experiences in Canada

⁴By William C. Edgar, editor of the *Northwestern Miller*. Pp. 105. Price \$1.00. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1903.

⁵Pp. viii, 336. Price \$2.00. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach, 1903.

is fascinating. Their ill-adjustment to the conditions of a new continent, and their conflicts with authority, he ascribes to habits formed under an old environment and to ignorance (both of which may be overcome by a few rays of Western enlightenment) rather than to any disposition that will stand permanently in the way of prosperity and good citizenship.

IN AN ESSAY ENTITLED "Empire and Sovereignty,"⁶ Professor Freund discusses a variety of forms of state organization, particularly those of the federal and imperial types, from the point of view of sovereignty, and reaches the conclusion that in scarcely any one of them is a perfect sovereignty co-extensive with its political organization. Beginning with that form which is commonly called the federal state, he says the ingenuity of political writers has been taxed to fit the theory of the sovereignty of such a state to its peculiar structure. His own opinion is that the federal state is not sovereign over its component members because it never imposed its organization upon them by force or against their will, and further because they cannot be destroyed by "federal power." As for the United States and Germany in particular, he points out that certain matters are withdrawn from the power of constitutional amendment. We venture the opinion that Dr. Freund has reached this conclusion (which is not generally the accepted view) from a failure to distinguish between state and government. What he and others call a federal state is one having a dual system of government under a common sovereignty—a sovereignty which stands back of the government, is supreme over the government and legally unlimited. If sovereignty is an essential attribute of every independent state, it is difficult to see how its form of government, whether it be federal or consolidated, can operate either to limit or enlarge its sovereignty. The single limitation upon the sovereignty of the United States which he mentions with regard to the amendment of the Constitution is a self-limitation; that is, it is no limitation at all in law. All other limitations are limitations upon the government and not upon the state.

Dr. Freund reaches substantially the same conclusion with regard to states having autonomous colonies, protectorates or other dependencies. In all these dominions, which include the whole of Australia,—nearly the whole of America and a large part of Asia and Africa, it is a very significant fact, he says, that there is no perfect sovereignty, but only a qualified sovereignty. A full realization of this fact, if it be a fact, must bring a revision of some of the fundamental doctrines of political science.

THE HISTORIAN OF THE MIDDLE AGES and the philosopher will find Professor Harnack's⁷ two lectures on monasticism and St. Augustine a delightful recreation,—profound without being tedious, scholarly without being pedantic, accurate without losing any of the charm that comes from enthusiasm.

⁶ By Ernst Freund. Pp. 32. University of Chicago Decennial Publications, 1903.

⁷ Monasticism: Its Ideals and History (and) The Confessions of St. Augustine. Two lectures by Adolph Harnack. Translated into English by E. K. Kellett, M. A., and F. H. Marseille, Ph. D. Pp. 171. Boston: Little, Brown & Company. London: Williams & Norgate.

Monasticism, says Professor Harnack, is not as old as the Church. It is true that the Church of the fourth century, in which it took shape, thought it found even in the apostolic age essentially similar institutions; but the models which some persons have invoked, and still invoke, as precedents belong chiefly to legend.

Contrary to the tradition of centuries, which has accustomed us to date the first secularization of the Church from the time when, under Constantine, she began to be a state Church, Harnack maintains that in the middle of the third century she was already highly secularized. She had already lowered her standard of life. The strong bond that held her together was no longer a religious system or brotherly love, but a hierarchic system which threatened to stifle not only Christian freedom and independence, but also the very sense of brotherhood. Especially under the influence of Neoplatonism Christianity became a philosophy rather than a religion. But such a Church as this was no longer in a position to give peace to all that came to her, and to shelter them from the world. Then began the great upheaval and man fled not only from the world, but from worldliness in the Church.

After discussing the rise of monasticism in pages which we have summarized above, the author considers the philosophy of monasticism, its ideals and its evolution, comparing the Eastern monasticism with that of the West, and contrasting it with the tenets of modern Protestantism.

The second lecture, that on St. Augustine, is shorter than the first, but characterized by the same broad scholarship, the same subtle psychological analysis and literary polish.⁸

REV. SAMUEL HEDGES' book on Father Marquette⁹ is a laudatory but brief and rather unsatisfactory account of the great missionary and explorer. It deals all too sparingly with the events of his busy life. The object of the work is to prove that the town of St. Ignace, Michigan, holds the remains of the picturesque apostle to the Indians. The impression is gained that whatever Marquette's claims on posterity may be, the writer never loses sight of the fact that he was a Jesuit.

JOHNS' TRANSLATION OF THE CODE OF HAMMURABI, King of Babylon B. C. 2285-2242,¹⁰ is an attempt to put into English a translation more literal than that of Father V. Scheil, and, as the author modestly hopes, better rendered than Dr. H. Winckler's. It is of interest to the student of political science in that it gives evidence of a scheme of law, well formulated and well wrought out, covering most of the activities of a modern society—a commercial code, a social code, and a penal code—a digest of laws already

⁸Contributed by Prof. C. W. A. Veditz, Bates College.

⁹Jesuit Missionary and Explorer. The discoverer of the Mississippi. With an introduction by Rev. John J. Wynne, S. J. Pp. 164. Price \$1.00. New York: Christian Press Association Publishing Company, 1903.

¹⁰The oldest code of laws in the world, translated by C. H. W. Johns, M. A., Lecturer in Assyriology, Queen's College, Cambridge. Pp. 88. Price 75 cents. Edinburgh: T. and T. Clark. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, 1903.

for long ages in operation, this digest having been first published four thousand years before political activity and legal establishments became the subject of scientific research.

THE LATEST REPRINT of colonial works in the series published by Humphrey is the account of "The Discoveries of John Lederer," etc.,¹¹ a German explorer, in the colonies of Virginia and Carolina, in the years 1669 and 1670. This is an interesting contemporary account of the character of the country which Lederer explored in three "marches" and of the customs and manners of the Indians of that region. The original work, of which there is a copy in the Harvard University Library, is perhaps sufficiently rare to warrant this reprint, which is neatly executed, and accompanied by a reproduction of the map of "the territory traversed."

"HORACE GREELEY," by William A. Linn,¹² is the third of Appleton's Historic Lives Series. Himself an editor and for a time in personal contact with Mr. Greeley, Mr. Linn's writing carries a sympathy of expression that gives life to the sketch. With Greeley we pass through many crucial experiences, carrying with us the impressions and mental reactions, the prejudices and the strong activities of a man whose influence was second to none, and who possessed abilities equaled by few, in a social and political contest which called away from private engagement and brought into public service the highest talents of nations. The combined qualities of picturesqueness and great personal power, of strong prejudice and high sense of honor, of generosity and impetuosity, make Greeley one of our most interesting public characters. And Mr. Linn has performed well the task of reproducing his leading characteristics.

DR. MEYER IN HIS "RAILWAY LEGISLATION IN THE UNITED STATES"¹³ has added another scholarly contribution to the literature of transportation. His main thesis is Legislation, though he brings in much of historic and economic interest to give it setting. In his introductory part he sets forth "The Significance of Railways," showing their social and economic bearing; "The Characteristics of Railway Legislation," and the necessity for "Economic Adjustment."

Part II presents railway legislation of the United States or the attempt made to bring about this adjustment. This is treated historically and analytically from the "Early Charters" to the "Present General Laws," including "Constitutional Provisions."

Part III has for its subject the "Interstate Commerce Commission," the

¹¹ Collected and translated out of Latine from his Discourse and Writings by Sir William Talbot, Baronet. London, 1672. Reprinted by George P. Humphrey, Rochester, N. Y. 1902. Three hundred copies. Pp. 30. \$2.00.

¹² Pp. xiii, 267. Price \$1.00. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1903.

¹³ By B. H. Meyer, Ph. D. Pp. xiv, 320. Price, \$1.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1903.

"Supreme Court" and the "Cullom Bill." To the logically developed treatise outlined is added an appendix, giving an example of "An American Railway Charter," a draft of "Articles of Incorporation under General Laws," "The Massachusetts Commission Law," "The Interstate Commerce Law," and "The Elkins Law," with an interpretation. While the sacrifice of detail and of the concrete in the interest of brevity has left a somewhat heavy literary style, and made the text in places rigid, the student and the man interested in a scientific and reliable presentation of the subject may read Dr. Meyer's book with confidence, and will find in it a well-sustained interest.

"THE HISTORICAL RENAISSANCE" in the State of Mississippi in recent years is substantially evidenced by a recent publication of the Mississippi Historical Society,¹⁴ a volume of nearly 600 pages, with some ten illustrations and maps. Twenty-seven different contributions are included in the contents, all relating to some phase of the history of the state, comprising papers of a military, economic, political, biographical, religious and archaeological character. Several of these are of more than merely local interest, especially six important articles on the political and constitutional history of the state, notably those upon the Secession Convention, the Reconstruction period and the Constitutional Convention of 1890. The longest, as well as one of the most interesting and timely articles, is that upon "Suffrage and Reconstruction in Mississippi," by Hon. Frank Johnston. The first report of the Department of Archives and History is also included in this volume. A great deal of credit should be accorded to Professor Riley, the secretary of the society and the chairman of the state's Historical Commission, for in large part it has been due to his enthusiasm and energy that this lively interest in the history of Mississippi has been aroused and has found expression in the establishment of a Department of Archives and History by the state.¹⁵

"WINTER INDIA,"¹⁶ by Miss Eliza R. Scidmore, is a charming book of travels. Her descriptions have a vividness that enables the reader to see mental pictures quite as clearly as he sees the thirty-four illustrations of the book, and it matters not whether the subject of her pen picture be an inky black native of the Southern Capes or the snow-white Himalayas. Her account of the great empire in the East gives valuable side lights for the economist, the sociologist, and especially for the student of colonial questions, who must know the ways of many types of men.

Those interested in the political aspects of Indian life should read the introductory chapter, which gives a striking picture of the size and complexity of India with its problems and its chaos.¹⁷

¹⁴ Edited by Franklin L. Riley, Secretary. Vol. VI. Pp. 567. Oxford, Miss., 1902.

¹⁵ Contributed by Herman V. Ames.

¹⁶ Pp. xvi, 400. Price, \$2.00. New York: Century Company, 1901.

¹⁷ Contributed by J. Russell Smith.

"THE LETTERS OF DANIEL WEBSTER"¹⁸ as compiled by Professor Van Tyne afford us a broad and interesting view of Webster's personality. Comparatively few are the instances where people of public note write personal letters with the intent that they shall ever become public. Thus we find that a complete collection of letters, written on all varieties of occasions, to people in high and low estate, to people of importance, and to those who are unknown beyond their own neighborhood, to relatives, friends, and enemies, would furnish better material for the estimate of character than most of the writings which were intended for the public eye.

Daniel Webster has a place in American history generally understood to be unique. Biographies have appeared in numbers, estimates of his character have again and again been written, collections of his letters have been published, and his public acts should be known to every schoolboy. Mr. Van Tyne has, at great pains, supplemented the collection of letters before published, and it seems unlikely that anything will be added in this line in the future. The official correspondence of Webster can be obtained, of course, in the archives of the Department of State, but the personal correspondence collected by Mr. Van Tyne gives us an opportunity to see the man as he was to himself and to those who knew him best.

In a volume of nearly eight hundred pages have been collected and classified, not alone letters written by Mr. Webster, but letters written to him, which show, perhaps as clearly as those sent by himself, the general private trend of Mr. Webster's thought, if indeed one may say there was a trend to his thought as revealed in these letters. If one unacquainted with American history, or the name of Webster, were to read the book he might possibly not learn that Webster occupied a position so near to the summit of his ambition. Indeed many of the letters written from Washington, from the Senate, or from the office of the Secretary of State, are such as might have been written by any farmer, manufacturer, or village lawyer. Perhaps there is as wide a difference between the public and private life of all men, yet one is apt to look for a different form of expression, or matter of discussion, in the letters of those who are called great. If the reading of letters is to give us all that can be found in them, perhaps it is best that the work of the editor be not extended too far, and that the letters be reproduced as nearly like those written as print can reproduce handwriting. Abbreviations, misspellings, grammatical mistakes, all those things, in fact, which may be found in a letter never intended for the public eye, will show what could not be shown by the mere words if carefully edited.

We cannot be too thankful to Mr. Van Tyne for his system of classification of the letters. The headings under which the letters are grouped are "Early Life," "Local Politician," "The National Statesman," "Family Relations," "Relations with Friends and Neighbors," "The Farmer of Marshfield," "Intellectual Interests," "The Sportsman," "Personal Finances," "Religious and Moral Character." Of course some who believe criticism to be fault-finding, might easily say that some of the letters belonged under headings

¹⁸ By C. H. Van Tyne, Ph.D. Pp. 769. Price, \$5.00. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co., 1902.

where they are not found, but it would take an unusual discernment and remarkable diligence to arrange the more than one thousand letters in a better manner than has been done by Mr. Van Tyne. The editor has suppressed himself except for a preface of ten pages and numerous footnotes, which often throw light upon the ownership of the letters and upon references in the letters which would be otherwise obscure. A few documents which are not letters are included and are not out of place. Notes for some of Mr. Webster's most famous speeches are reproduced. A few extracts from speeches made in the Senate have an added interest from the fact that they are taken from his own handwriting rather than from the official reports.

To comment upon many of the most interesting letters would fill too much space. But among the hundreds which deserve comment, especially interesting is one in February, 1829, in which Webster gives a synopsis of his estimate of General Jackson. No doubt all readers, except those especially studying politics, will be more interested in the letters classified under "Family Relations" and other headings, which include the private character of Mr. Webster. His letters to his children show clearly that he was not so thoroughly absorbed in his public career and his ambition to be President as to forget to discuss with interest the daily school work of his sons or to fulfill his promise of a new hat for his daughter. While it may be noted that the tone of his letters to his first wife differ from that used toward his second wife, it must be admitted that such difference could be amply explained by the different natures of the two women.

The special student and the cultivated reader of American history have great cause to be grateful to Mr. Van Tyne for his volume of "The Letters of Daniel Webster."¹⁹

THE POSSIBLE ECONOMIC FUTURE OF AFRICA assumes a rosier hue with the return of every explorer. "Twixt Sirdar and Menelik,"²⁰ by Captain M. S. Wellby, is the record of a journey from East Africa opposite Aden, across Abyssinia to Lake Rudolph, and down the Nile valley to Khartoum. The traveler, a British officer, thinking of strategy, of hunting and of polo, gives us nevertheless side glimpses of a fine plateau country in Abyssinia. The climate is good and bracing, barley and native grains are cultivated, the native pony is a hardy animal, the native mule is excellent, hogs, cattle and sheep are kept, game abounds, and "immense stretches" of fertile land are covered with six-foot grass and lying idle. All these live-stock possibilities are as near to Europe as are the plains of Wyoming, and can easily be made as available or even more so.

The people of Abyssinia are much praised, and after giving many instances of their amazing generosity, the author declares, "I maintain that in Abyssinia there are just as good men to be found as there are in any other country."

¹⁹ Contributed by George Emory Feliows, Orono, Maine.

²⁰ Pp. xxv, 408. New York: Harper & Brothers.

As might be expected, the low-lying plains around Lake Rudolph and in the valleys tributary to the Nile were found to be far less promising.²¹

"REPUBLICS VERSUS WOMEN"²² is of interest from two standpoints: (1) Because of its form, and (2) because it so aptly represents the feelings of a proud American woman when she is forced to contemplate the mortifications of a woman's social and political position in America. The book is dramatic in effect, for it purports to be a speech made by the writer to a secret society of foreign women of high birth, who wished to elevate humanity by overthrowing aristocracies. In order to save them, and especially a valued friend, from this design, the writer explained in full the political, civil and legal status of women in the United States, thereby making it plain to her hearers that since the first of all republics neglects women, anarchy and socialism, which must of necessity resemble a republic, can only lead to a man government in which women are not recognized. The discourse is lucid, forceful and able. The relation of personal experiences undergone by a well-born American woman in endeavoring to secure recognition adds to the interest. Curious facts are used as illustrations. In view of the accusations regarding women's luxury, it is interesting to know that while New York women spend forty millions in dress, the men spend one hundred and sixty million on alcohol and tobacco and sixty million on clubs and sports, not to mention the millions that go to less reputable pleasures.

"SPAIN AND HER PEOPLE,"²³ by Jeremiah Zimmerman, LL. D., contains, in addition to considerable information needed by the prospective tourist, an interesting study of the Spanish people since the war with the United States. Unfortunately the book is without index or chapter analysis, and the brief titles of chapters are often far from descriptive of the miscellaneous contents. Much history is quoted from secondary sources, and the work appears to be that of a clergyman prone to moralizing and the telling of all that he knows. From many scattered passages one may piece together the following analysis of the Spaniard and his situation.

Backward and poverty-stricken Spain is a product of centuries of misgovernment which still continues, and the priest-ridden people have no faith in the government (an opinion in which the late Dr. J. L. M. Curry concurred). The omnipresent beggar shows evident signs of hunger, and it is estimated that one-half of the population is underfed, and this in a country where hundreds of thousands of acres of fertile soil lie idle and rich minerals are waiting to be mined. Much of the country is deforested waste, but the productions of the soil might be increased 200 per cent if put on a par with France. The laborer is often idle, and the leading citizens have no capital and plan

²¹ Contributed by J. Russell Smith.

²² By Mrs. Kate Woolsey. Pp. xiii, 179. Price, \$1.25. New York: The Grafton Press, 1903.

²³ Pp. 350. Price \$2.00. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Company.

no enterprises. They scorn work, and in their "aristocratic poverty and national pride" they sometimes choose beggary as the more honorable of the two. The great and universal ambition is to wear the brass buttons and uniform of the government employee; 40 per cent of the people are supported by the government in one way or another. Official statistics show less than 30 per cent of population as agriculturists and 26 per cent as industrial. Official salaries are low and peculation is almost necessary as well as universal, and the government is for the favored aristocratic class (caste), who also escape taxation.

In the standing army of 100,000 in time of peace there are "six captain-generals, thirty-nine lieutenant-generals, sixty generals of division, one hundred and sixty brigadier-generals, or one general for every three hundred and seventy soldiers."

The Spaniards believe themselves to be a superior nation but 70 per cent are illiterate; they boast of glory and shun innovations—Spain cannot be excelled. The model for the plow and the cart of the Castilian farmer is still to be seen upon the monuments of Egypt. The few great enterprises are run by the foreigner, and Spain, sleeping under the lock of the Inquisition and dreaming of militant glory, is still in her mediæval period. Modern times may reach her, but they will come from without.²⁴

REVIEWS

Studies in Contemporary Biography. By JAMES BRYCE. Pp. ix, 487. Price, \$3.00. London and New York: The Macmillan Company, 1903.

These biographical studies by Mr. Bryce are in the truest sense what the title indicates. They are not biographies as biographies are usually considered, but rather so many clear and appreciative essays on the character and personality of a score of famous Englishmen of the last fifty years. A number of them have appeared in periodicals, but these have not been revised and enlarged for the present volume. The studies begin with Disraeli and conclude with Gladstone. But these two cannot be taken as typical. Among the other names there are only a few of universal reputation. They are for the most part men of eminence in special fields of human activity, and although well known to the specialist, their names are not familiar to the general reader. Such are the historian, E. A. Freeman, and his friend, John Richard Green; William Robertson Smith, well known among Orientalists; Edwin Lawrence Godkin, a striking personality to all Americans and especially to readers of the *Nation*. Parnell, Cardinal Manning, Dean Stanley, Anthony Trollope, Archbishop Tait and Lord Acton are more generally known. But in T. H. Green, Henry Sidgwick, Bishop Fraser, Robert Lowe, Stafford Henry Northcote, the author again deals with men whose names are not so well known especially outside of England. The same is true of the two eminent representatives of the English Bench, Earl Cairns and Sir George Jessel, while of Edward E.

²⁴ Contributed by J. Russell Smith.

Bowen, who was all his life an assistant master at Harrow, even Englishmen have probably not generally heard.

None but a writer of Mr. Bryce's cosmopolitan interest and sympathies could hope to write appreciatively of men so diversified in character, tastes and occupation. Even the advantage of having personally known all but one of them would be found by many an additional difficulty. But whatever the difficulties of the task these do not appear. To the reviewer the pleasure of the reading was such that he has nothing but praise to be said of the biographies. They are charming portraits, giving expression to the deepest and most subtle characteristics, executed with marvelous freedom and technical skill and illumined in the best light of historical perspective.

For this work the author has had exceptional opportunities. He has for years been himself an active and observant participant in public life; like Dean Stanley he has gained much as an historian not only from an intimate knowledge of his own times, but also, and even more largely, from playing an active part in the events of his own time, "from swaying opinions by his writings and speeches" and "from sitting in assemblies." But unlike Stanley, Bryce is thoroughly imbued with the historic spirit. His work is the result of careful investigation and of keen personal observation.

The influence of family and race is never overlooked, and where these have been marked they are constantly used to throw a broader light upon the treatment. Childhood and early youth are in most cases passed over in silence. On the other hand the university life and associations and the trend of the formative influence at work upon the man as an undergraduate are brought out with especial emphasis. That period of life during which theories and views of men and things are formed, and intimate, often valuable friendships made, has a special attraction for the author. Indeed in reading on page 86 in connection with T. H. Green at Oxford, of how the "undergraduates were warmly interested in one another," and "had an inordinate fondness for measuring the intellectual gifts and conjecturing the future of those among their contemporaries who seemed likely to attain eminence," one cannot but feel that the basis for the present biographical studies was even then being laid.

The character analysis throughout is clear and incisive. The author is keenly alive to the strength and the weaknesses of his characters, and while always critical, in the good sense of that word, he never fails in kindness. The complex character of Gladstone is explained in a manner that leaves the impression of a perfect mastery of even the inner motives and springs of action of the great man. His pure Scotch ancestry, his Oxford education with the early phases of the Oxford movement, and his apprenticeship to Peel are conspicuous points. The contradictions are reconciled. It is no longer anomalous to read that "Gladstone was never a Whig;" that he came near to being a Roman Catholic in his religious opinions, yet was for the last twenty years of his life the trusted leader of the English Protestant Non-Conformist and the Scottish Presbyterians. His demeanor when under fire in the House of Commons is admirably described and the account of his retirement after 1894 is well worth reading for its own sake. One cannot help contrasting the

stately dignity and calm of Hawarden with the petulance and dissatisfaction of Fredricksruhe.

Disraeli is treated with equal force and clearness. His Hebrew extraction and his lack of a university training, facts of the utmost importance for a proper comprehension of his position, are emphasized. For Disraeli possessed in a full measure that detachment, intensity and the passion for material success so characteristic of his race. He had the faculty of turning all the powers of the mind, imagination as well as reasoning, into a single channel, which, together with the dearth of material for leadership among the Tory party, made possible his "climbing to the highest distinction." The limitations and in a sense the narrowness of Disraeli contrast strongly with the depth and the breadth of Gladstone, though this is suggested rather than expressed. This appreciation for the limitations of men and methods appears even more strikingly in the cases of Parnell and of Cardinal Manning, or when he speaks of the Arnoldine methods.

Prominence is given to high standards of private and public morality. One cannot but feel the author's strong admiration for the moral strenuousness of Mr. Gladstone or the deep sense of right seen so conspicuously in Dean Stanley, who, despite his sympathetic nature, was never guilty of the fashionable error "of extenuating moral distinctions." Yet he is fair and kind to all.

Comparisons and contrast by placing his characters in juxtaposition with other well-known contemporaries or historic personages are often very happy. In this way a great number of interesting personages are incidentally introduced, which serve to bring out the peculiar phase of the character under discussion. Of the many cases of this kind those in the *Essay on Trollope* are especially worthy of note, while the following from the discussion of the advantage enjoyed by Disraeli of living long merits to be quoted even in a review: "True it is that a man must have greatness in order to stand the test of long life. Some are found out, like Louis Napoleon. Some lose their balance and therewith their influence, like Lord Brougham. Some cease to grow or learn, and if a statesman is not better at sixty than he was at thirty, he is worse. Some jog heavily on, like Metternich, or stiffen into arbitrary doctrinaires, like Guizot. Disraeli did not merely stand the test, he gained immensely by it." Great historic movements of the last century often have new and suggestive light thrown upon them as they are seen through the relations of Mr. Bryce's characters to them. A few deserve special mention, such as the Oxford Movement, the liberalizing of the Scotch Presbyterians, the doctrine of Papal Infallibility and the Eastern Question.

There are occasional flights of style that rise to conspicuous heights, of which the passage describing Lord Acton in his library at Cannes late at night expounding his view of how his plan for a history of liberty might be realized, is a good example. "He spoke for six or seven minutes only; but he spoke like a man inspired, seeming as if, from some mountain summit high in air, he saw beneath him the far winding path of human progress from dim Cimmerian shores of prehistoric shadow into the fuller yet broken and fitful light of modern times. The eloquence was splendid, but even greater than the

eloquence was the penetrating vision which discerned through all events and in all ages the play of those moral forces, now creating, now destroying, always transmuting, which had moulded and remoulded institutions, and had given to the human spirit its ceaselessly-changing forms of energy. It was as if the whole landscape of history had been suddenly lit up by a burst of sunlight."

WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH.

University of Pennsylvania

Arbeit und Rhythmus. By PROFESSOR KARL BÜCHER. Third edition. Pp. xi, 443. Price, 7 m. Leipzig: B. E. Teubner, 1902.

This volume is in striking contrast to the scholasticism of the usual economic writings. The author does not treat of quantitative industrial forces composed of absolutely equal units and governed by laws as immutable as the laws of physics. On the contrary he implies all through the book that laborers are human beings with minds filled with associations and with nervous systems easily affected by their environment. While not expressly stated, the author implies that drudgery is not a quality inherent in any kind of activity, but depends upon the associations connected with the particular thing which is found to be irksome. He calls attention to the fact that among primitive peoples music and singing are combined with all their activities to such an extent that the difference between work and play does not exist, and all that they do is done in the spirit of sport.

After discussing in the first chapters the rhythmical movements in work and work songs in a general way the author devotes a very large part of the book to songs composed for and sung to the different kinds of work and amusements, especially of the less-civilized peoples. The texts of the songs are given in great numbers, more than two hundred and fifty in all. The reader is astonished by the indisputable evidence here brought forward of the widespread use of music in connection with work. The ancient Egyptians sang constantly at nearly every kind of work. They rubbed the hulls off the grain, ground the kernels and kneaded the dough with their feet to songs composed for each part of the process. They drew their seines, hauled their boats, and drove the flock over moist earth to tread in the grain, to the melody of special songs. These customs have persisted to the present, for Baedeker's guide-book for that country says: "The Egyptians hold themselves for a peculiarly gifted musical people, and, indeed, the traveler will soon notice how much singing there is. The Egyptian sings when he squats on the ground, when he stretches himself on his straw mat, when he dances along behind his donkey, when he carries stones and materials up on to a building, when working in the field, when rowing. He sings whether he works alone or in groups and considers song an essential element of strength in his work and of joy in his leisure."

In like manner the ancient Greeks accompanied most of their routine work with music, instrumental or vocal, or both together. They spun to singing. They rowed their boats, tread out their wine, ground their grain, drew water

and kneaded bread to the tune of the flute, having one to play while the others worked. Modern Greeks habitually sing at many kinds of work. They habitually employ music, both vocal and instrumental, to cheer and strengthen them at work.

But not Egyptians and Greeks only, for throughout the world labor is done to music and singing. The natives of West Africa constantly sing at their work, and when a woman does not sing she does not work. In East Africa the carriers march under their burdens to the music of the kettle-drum. One traveler reports: "The natives of East Africa take pleasure in harmony. The fisher sings to the motion of his oars, the carrier sings with his burden and the woman sings as she grinds the corn." In Central Africa the same practice prevails. And here with some kinds of work it borders on the dramatic, for as the carriers march with their load it is the universal custom for one man to sing and dance ahead of them or at their side and thus cheer the toilers on their way. The Maoris of Australia sing at every kind of work or bodily activity. In the Moluccas every person, whether working alone or in groups, in wood or field, sings incessantly. The Truxarese sing without let-up while at work. The Malays sing at every kind of work and activity. In some kinds, such as rowing, they accompany their songs with the tam-tam. The Coolies, who work a great deal in gangs, always sing at their work. In China, as in the Soudan, the serfs do their work to the music of the drum. The Tahitians have countless songs adapted to every kind of work and for every grade of society. These are taught to the children, who afterwards sing them as they build their boats, as they launch them, as they fish, as they cut down and hew the trees, etc. The bush negroes of Guiana, the Caribbean and Central American natives have the same custom.

Thus everywhere in Asia, Africa, and the islands of the sea, the natives of nearly all tribes and countries sing or play their musical instruments as an accompaniment to their various kinds of labor. Everything points to the fact that their ancestors, even back to remotest times, have always associated rhythm, music and work.

If we turn now to the civilized peoples we find that they, too, keep up the union of work with song. Though machinery with its clatter and whirr has nearly driven out of the Western world rhythmical movements in work and the custom of accompanying these with appropriate songs, nevertheless it still persists with the handicrafts in many countries.

The author advances the theory that music takes its origin in the rhythmical movements of the body. He finds that the meter of the songs is identical with the "meter" of the rhythmical movements of the work for which the song is composed. The book as a whole is extremely interesting and stimulating. It pictures clearly the possibility of making even routine work interesting by means of art. It shows us that what the most enlightened manufacturers are doing to reduce drudgery and surround the work with pleasant associations is no new thing, but is as old as the human race.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Philadelphia.

"The American Advance, a Study in Territorial Expansion." By EDMUND J. CARPENTER. Pp. 331. Price, \$2.50. London and New York: John Lane, 1903.

It is but natural that the centennial celebration of the largest territorial acquisition of the United States should be an occasion for the appearance of many books dealing with its expansion. It is but natural, also, that the altogether too recent passing of the Spanish power from this continent should offer many an inviting theme to the moralist who delights to assign causes for the decay of national greatness. The patient reader, however, who wades through volume after volume suggested by one or both of the above occurrences, may well ask if the majority of such productions are really worth while. If authors really must write about the expansion of the American republic at the expense of its Spanish and Mexican neighbors, why would it not be well occasionally to give us a change in point of view? For instance, let them use some of the sources now available in the Southwest and Mexico, to say nothing of possible material in Spain, to show us what the Spanish-American thought of his energetic opponents. It indeed seems that we have reached a point in our Western historical writing when no further works should be produced until there is a thorough exploitation of the archives which the careful, document-creating Spaniard so thoughtfully piled up for us. That such an exploitation will force us to adopt many new conclusions regarding apparently well-established truths goes without saying, and it may be that many phases of the new view of our land-absorbing career will give us a lessened feeling of satisfied complacency; yet this process of rigid investigation must be employed if we are ever to obtain a true picture of the expansion of the American people.

The volume under review is a fairly good production of its kind, but it shares the fault of many others in presenting a one-sided view. The author claims to have examined certain government publications in the preparation of his work, and his pages, so far as subject matter is concerned, seem to substantiate his claim. References to sources, however, are conspicuously absent. In a book intended for the average reader one could excuse the lack, were it not so very evident that he is giving us merely a rehash of ordinary, well-used material. One may arise from a perusal of the book with a somewhat clearer idea of certain historical events, but with a totally false conception of their true significance, and in many cases with a wrong date or a twisted interpretation to mislead one still further. Up to within a comparatively short time there was some excuse for writing a history of the Southwest largely from our own sources, but such is no longer possible. With two large depositories available in Texas, with collections in New Mexico and California, with the *Archivo General* of Mexico City, to say nothing of accessible material in England, France, and Spain, one should come forward with an apology to inflict upon the public another volume on American expansion based merely on American sources.

There is much to criticise in the work aside from the main fault of one-sidedness in treatment. Is there any special reason for giving 1822 as the date for the independence of Mexico? Is it strictly true that Monroe was to treat

for the "cession of Louisiana alone" (page 31)? Is he rightly called the "second great expansionist whom history has given us"? Many readers will not concur "in the historical fact of the discovery of the Texas region by La Salle in the year 1682" (page 113). His statement that "it was undeniable that the revolt of the Mexican province of Texas had its inception in the action of the Mexican republic in abolishing slavery" (page 128) is one that will readily be questioned and justly so. Throughout his discussion of the annexation of Texas he follows too closely the old idea that slavery was the "true" cause of the Texas movement, and utterly ignores the fundamental factors of racial differences and insurrectionary movements in Mexico. Even John Quincy Adams recognized the strength of the latter element, and one need spend but a few hours in such a collection as the *Béxar Archives* to realize the strength of the former. It may seem too fine a point to object to the word "city" as applied to Guadalupe Hidalgo, but there seems no reason for the numerous typographical and other mistakes in dates, with which the book is so liberally sprinkled, as to render it tedious to note them. It is not at all surprising that our author devotes some six pages of his chapter on "Oregon" to a vivid statement of Whitman's famous ride and its supposed results. He is not in the least deterred by recent "iconoclastic attempts" to relegate the story "to the realm of fable," but even imparts an air of reality to his version by reporting a conversation between Webster and Dr. Whitman. His final chapters are rightly brief, but with an occasional attempt at picturesque writing that distorts the true historic perspective.

Many of the descriptive passages of the book are spirited and interesting, but the serious fault of a lack of complete preparation for the task, coupled with carelessness in statement and inaccuracies in dates, renders the work much less helpful than it should be. The volume contains a map as a frontispiece but lacks an index or complete table of contents.

I. J. Cox.

Philadelphia.

Spinoza's Political and Ethical Philosophy. By ROBERT A. DUFF, M. A. Pp. 516. Price, \$3.50. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons. New York: Macmillan & Co., 1903.

This volume, the work of a Glasgow University professor, is by far the most systematic and scholarly exposition of Spinoza's philosophy that has yet appeared in English. Its chief merit as compared with the recent work of Sir Frederick Pollock is its greater comprehensiveness in scope, its finer elucidation of statement and its better correlation of ideas, although it falls short of the latter work in several minor particulars, notably as regards the treatment of the sources of Spinoza's philosophy. This important phase of the subject is dismissed by Professor Duff with a few paragraphs. Something like two-thirds of the volume is given up to an exposition of Spinoza's doctrines of law and politics as set forth in his two celebrated works, the "Tractatus Theologico-Politicus" and the "Tractatus Politicus," the former published in 1670, the latter, an unfinished treatise, appearing shortly after the author's death in

1677. The remaining one-third of the volume deals with Spinoza's ethical system.

With regard to the sources of Spinoza's philosophy it may be noted that the author rejects in the main the view of Sir Frederick Pollock, T. H. Green and others, who have treated Spinoza largely as a disciple of Hobbes and who claim to have found the basis of much of his doctrine in the writings of the English philosopher. Duff points out that Spinoza never mentioned the name of Hobbes except in two passages, although he admits that Spinoza had a copy of the "*De Cive*" in his library. He thinks a deeper influence was exerted upon Spinoza by Machiavelli, who for some unaccountable reason seems to have held the Dutch philosopher under a magician's spell. There are frequent references of an important nature to the "*Prince*" and the "*Discourses*," while the tone and temper, as well as many of the illustrations and phrases of the "*Tractatus Politicus*," may be traced to this source. Two other authors who, in the opinion of the editor, influenced Spinoza were Grotius and St. Augustine. Strangely enough there is no evidence that either Plato or Aristotle contributed anything to his system of philosophy, and he does not seem to have even had any direct knowledge of the greatest of all philosophers.

Spinoza's doctrines of the "*Jus Naturæ*" and the "*Status Naturalis*" are made the subjects of special chapters. With regard to the latter Spinoza accepted the view of Hobbes, that the state of nature was one of potential if not actual warfare among men. His conception of the nature and function of law is wholesome and rational. Law, he says, is not inconsistent with liberty; it does not restrain the freedom of the individual, but secures and enlarges his freedom, and its force is not that of him who commands but of the individuals who obey, because they judge that their good lies in the direction of obedience. Spinoza's doctrines of political science are treated under the captions, "origin and sphere of the state," the "nature of government," the "value of a good constitution," the "nature and conditions of state security," "state autonomy" and "forms of state." His theory of the origin of the state is not very different from that of Hobbes. He traces its beginning to a covenant of mutual concessions from individuals who are prompted by a desire to secure greater happiness, peace and security than the state of nature affords. The idea that the state is the result of necessity, but at the same time man's best friend, pervades his whole system. Its end is not dominion nor the restraining of men by fear, but to deliver each man from fear; that is, its end is *libertas*. Spinoza's philosophy with regard to the sphere of the state is in harmony with the principles of sound political science. The entire realm of social and family life, the world of business and of recreation, and in fact every phase of human activity, is within the control of the state. Even property is held subject to its power, and private owners are but trustees for the state. The idea that the supreme end for which the state exists is the fostering and development of human intelligence is one of the dominant principles of his politics. Unlike Hobbes he makes a distinction between state and government. To him the terms are never synonymous except in absolute monarchies. His conception of the ideal state is that in which the power of the

ruler is absolute; and the monarch who can say with truth *L'état c'est moi* is the best of all rulers and has the happiest subjects, since only the best ruler can rule his subjects absolutely. The secret of the state's eternity, the happiness and freedom of its subjects and the surest security for the permanence of the royal power, is a good constitution planted deeply in the affections of the people. The obligation of obedience lasts only so long as the ruler maintains the conditions for the sake of which men form a state and elect rulers, but tyrannicide as a means of preventing tyranny is unjustifiable and insufficient. Applying to the state Hobbes' doctrine of the belligerency of the natural man, he says states are by nature enemies and are always in a state of potential or actual hostility.

JAMES WILFORD GARNER.

University of Pennsylvania.

How to Keep Household Accounts: A Manual of Family Finance. By CHARLES WALDO HASKINS, L. H. M., C. P. A. Pp. viii, 117. Price, \$1.00. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1903.

More than a thousand books have appeared in English on the general theme of "domestic economy." Mr. Haskins, in his "How to Keep Household Accounts," is the first recognized authority in the field of accounting to give treatment to the subject. The work is intended to aid in the adjustment of private expenditure and income in such a way as to leave a surplus for "higher living." The ideal which the author sets before himself in this little book is expressed as follows: "We labor to satisfy our needs and to increase our hoard. Our labor is productive of these results, however, in proportion as it is well ordered." The book is dedicated to the service of the mistress of the household, into whose hands falls the administration of its well-being. A system is proposed which will show "how the situation compares, on the one hand, with a former condition and, on the other, with the ideal in the mind of the administrator." For classification of accounts the purpose of administration is set forth in simple language: "The reasoning of domestic economists will be that we must eat, drink, wear clothes, have a roof over our heads, pay for service, educate the young, look after the general comforts and well-being of the household and save what we can out of our income. This gives to the housewife seven chief categories of expenditure: (1) food, (2) clothing, (3) rent and taxes, (4) light, heat, washing, etc., (5) household furnishings, (6) education and recreation, (7) investments."

Not only does Mr. Haskins give the form of accounts intended to serve the end of intelligent thought with reference to these ends, but in the discussion of "the budget" he gives the best result of scientific research as to the apportionment of income in such a way as to give the highest results in welfare. The four laws laid down by Dr. Engels are set out in brief: "The drift of them is, (1) that as income increases the smaller is the percentage of outlay for food, (2) that the outlay for clothing maintains a constant proportion to the whole, (3) that the percentage for shelter and for heat and

light is the same whatever the income, (4) that the percentage of outlay for sundries (expressing the degree of prosperity) increases as income advances."

These observations, with a well-ordered system of accounts, lay the foundation for administration of income for the maintenance of higher living and enjoyment. To so apportion the several classes of expenditure as to leave the highest "expression of welfare" is to attain the greatest measure of success.

F. A. CLEVELAND.

New York City.

The Nearer East. By D. G. HOGARTH. Pp. xvi, 296. Price, \$2.00. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1902.

This volume is one of a series of geographical studies whose aim it is to make familiar the basis that geography gives to history and social progress. In each volume some natural region is to be so described that its marked physical features will be related to the life of the people or peoples that have occupied it. Facts are presented so graphically and vividly that their causal relations will be manifest. The reader will thus visualize each region with its seas and lands, its uplands and lowlands, its forests, deserts and all its seasonal changes on which crops, food and life depend.

This good program has been well executed by Mr. Hogarth in the present volume. I have seldom seen a book better arranged or its various facts and ideas more clearly presented. It is a model which it is to be hoped that the other authors of the series will follow. If they do, one of the great difficulties of history and social science will be removed.

The volume is of especial importance because it deals with the regions occupied by the older civilizations. The "Nearer East" is made up of the lands bordering on the eastern Mediterranean together with those about the Persian Gulf. It thus includes Greece, the Balkan Peninsula, Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, Arabia and Persia. Each of these regions is separately described, so that its area, position, geological structure and climate can be clearly understood, and then in the second part each district is again gone over to show its products, its means of communication, the distribution and grouping of races and the conditions of life. All this is well done, and no one can read the book and study the maps without acquiring new ideas of these regions and the part they have played in social progress.

The defects of the book lie in the closing sections. The author stops where the most is to be expected of him. After having described the five districts, there should have been a presentation of the physical aspects of the whole region and their effects on man. We do indeed find a closing chapter on "World Relation," but this deals only with its present use to other regions and with its power to provoke international disturbance.

Geologically the region as a whole is of late origin, and at an earlier period the seas must have covered a larger area and the land masses must have been of less altitude. At this time the region was well watered and the vegetation varied and luxurious. Later, partly at least through volcanic action,

the land masses increased in altitude and the seas were reduced in size or disappeared. Now a drying up of the region began, the highlands became steppes and the interior basins were turned into deserts. Population was thus forced out of the upland and interior regions, and the wanderings of these displaced races caused the wars and commotion to which this region has always been subject. Each new increase of desert area dislocated some nation and reduced the amount of tillable land. The roving tribes of the upland thus gradually increased until in the end the Turk dominated the whole region. The instability of ancient nations had thus a geographical cause, and civilization could not get a firm footing until it had reached the great northern plains, where rains were abundant.

Some such use as this of the facts presented might have made the book more useful to the economist, and it is to be hoped that the author will see fit to go further and add a chapter on economic history. But even as it is the book is a mine of information, and should be on the desk of every thoughtful student.

S. N. PATTEN.

University of Pennsylvania.

A Treatise on the Power of Taxation, State and Federal, in the United States.

By FREDERICK N. JUDSON. Pp. xxiv, 868. Price, \$6.00. St. Louis: The F. H. Thomas Law Book Company, 1903.

The legal literature on the subject of taxation has not been rich in recent years. In view of the growing importance of the many judicial decisions on the subject and of the increasing interest in it, this is a somewhat surprising fact. It makes still warmer the welcome for the work which Mr. Judson has given us.

The author has limited his task wisely to a central feature of the subject, which, however, is so important that a large proportion of the phases of taxation readily group themselves about it. He seeks to show the limitations of the taxing power of the states and of the federal government, so far as these limitations have been declared and expounded by the Supreme Court of the United States. When the decisions of the state and inferior federal courts have been cited, it is to apply and illustrate the limitations thus declared. The work thus answers the question: What can the states and federal governments tax? It leaves untouched the questions: What has it taxed? and What ought it to tax? It is therefore primarily the lawyer's book, but in this day, when the practical spirit rules in economic discussion, and especially in this subject, where the contact between law and economic theory is the closest, the work is most valuable also to the student of finance.

The need of such a special treatise is greatest in a federal government, and a large part of the book is taken up with the complications that arise from the relations of the several states to the general government. First are the limitations on the power of the states to tax the agency and property of the federal government and to abrogate contracts entered into for the exemption from taxation of the property of corporations. In several chapters

(chapters III-IX) the relations of the states with each other in matters of taxation are discussed, giving the following group of subjects: State taxation of imports and exports, interference with interstate commerce, state taxation of foreign corporations, of steamboats and vessels, of interstate carriers, the valuation of interstate property, and the taxation of national banks.

The relation of the states to their citizens as limited and controlled by a federal law forms the subject of the next group of chapters. They deal with: The fourteenth amendment and its guarantee of due process of law, both as to the mode of procedure and as to the public purpose of taxation; the process required in special assessments; the jurisdiction of the states; equality both as to the selection of the subjects of taxation and as to the valuation of property. The concluding chapters are on the taxing power of Congress and on the procedure and the enforcement of federal limitations upon the taxing power. The book contains in an appendix the Constitution of the United States and such portions of the state Constitutions as bear on the subject of taxation.

If one should venture to suggest which of these chapters is most important to the student of finance, the choice would probably fall on those dealing with the state taxation of foreign corporations and with special assessments; the one because it has to do with one of the most interesting current developments, and the other because it is a subject peculiarly American. Hardly less valuable, however, are passages in almost every chapter of the book. If the reform of our tax law is to realize the hopes of the advanced students of the subject, it must be guided at every step by a knowledge of what is legally possible. Such a guide is here given. The references in the book are carefully made, the research on which it is founded appears to have been painstaking, and the style is unusually simple and lucid even to the layman in search of legal lore. Mr. Judson has in this book confirmed and strengthened his reputation as a thinker and writer in this important middle ground between the law and economics.

FRANK A. FETTER.

Cornell University.

The Principles of Money. By J. LAURENCE LAUGHLIN. Pp. xvi, 550. Price, \$3.00. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1903.

In this volume Professor Laughlin covers exhaustively the entire field of his subject. He begins his discussion with the functions of money, coinage and the standard question. Here he traverses familiar ground and arrives at well-known conclusions already sufficiently elaborated in his former work. His real contribution begins with Chapter IV, in which he deals with Credit. He defines credit as "the coinage of property into means of payment," meaning by this the purchase by banks of claims to receive sums of money at a future time secured by bills of lading or collateral. Since credit is based upon property sold, and follows instead of preceding the transactions of buying and selling, it cannot affect the relation between commodities and gold, and therefore has no influence upon prices. The author qualifies this conclusion by the

admission that when "abnormal credit has been extended, that is to say, credit based upon unsalable goods or an unprofitable business, the funds for repayment may not be forthcoming at the time appointed, and a forced sale of property may temporarily depress prices." In the same way, an exaggerated estimate of value at the time of granting credit may operate to raise prices. Normal credit, however, the exchange of goods against other goods of equal value, has no effect upon prices. This analysis of credit is further elaborated in Chapter V, which treats of the deposit currency. Professor Laughlin considers this as the mechanism by which goods are exchanged against each other without the use of cash. Arising out of transactions, the volume of the deposit currency is co-extensive with the amount of transactions, rising and falling with the volume of exchanges. The only limit, in his opinion, to the increase of the deposit currency, is the amount of legitimate business to be done. If men come forward with salable property, they can always obtain banking accommodation.

He now presents a novel theory of bank reserves. These are generally believed to constitute the basis of the deposit currency, to offer to the community the guarantee of redemption which it demands as a condition of accepting without question the checks which depositors offer. The proportion of these cash reserves to the deposit liabilities are, therefore, generally supposed to fix a limit beyond which the deposit currency cannot be extended. To this theory Professor Laughlin takes important exceptions. He offers, first, that the deposit currency could not be based on cash, because at any given time it could not be converted into cash; and, second, that the amount of the cash reserves cannot limit, except within a very limited period, the amount of the deposit currency, since the banks could readily increase their cash holdings by exchanging for money some portion of their other assets. So long as salable property is offered as the basis of credit, the banks will not refuse to extend the necessary accommodation to the borrower.

Why then, if this view is correct, need a bank keep any cash reserve? Professor Laughlin answers: to test the salability of the property offered as a basis of discounts. In the ordinary course of business, one claim will cancel another, but occasions sometimes arise where property must be actually sold in order to pay a debt. To meet such occasional demands for cash the banks maintain their money reserves. If there was any way of guaranteeing the legitimacy of all business transactions, so that no doubt could arise concerning the perfect normality of every item of credit extended, the banks, in our author's view, could materially reduce their cash holdings. The most perfect illustration of the principle that the basis of credit is not money but property is found in the issue of clearing house certificates, which have been repeatedly accepted in satisfaction of all obligations by members of the association which issues them, and which are avowedly based upon securities deposited with the clearing house committee.

Chapters VI and VII, on Tables of Prices and The History of the Quantity Theory, are in themselves valuable contributions to the literature of money. In the first, after a prefatory discussion of the methods of compiling these tables, in which he seems to favor that of an average weighted

according to the importance of the several articles in the national consumption, the author presents the results of a most laborious compilation in a series of charts and tables which summarize twenty-three important investigations of prices covering the period beginning with the new gold discoveries. These tables include English, German, Dutch, Italian, French, American and Indian prices, and in fact epitomize the price investigations of the past fifty years. The purpose of this compilation is to offer a basis, first for the consideration of the hitherto accepted theory that prices are directly conditioned by the supply of money, and, second, for the author's own theory of price movements.

Eighty-six pages are next devoted to an elaborate history of the development of the so-called quantity theory of money. Without pausing to consider the discussion in detail, which summarizes the views of all the leading writers on money upon this subject from the mercantilists down, we may observe that the author finds throughout a general adherence to the proposition that the level of prices corresponds to the relation between the demand for money, by which is generally understood the quantity of goods offered in exchange, and the supply of money, which has been variously defined, as the supply of coined money, of coined money plus bank notes, and of the total amount of currency plus the amount of credit, which most text writers have agreed is based upon the cash reserves. In the later development of the theory Professor Laughlin discovers a strong inclination to the use of methods of hypothetical formulation; but in spite of a growing reluctance to approve the theory in its naked simplicity, few theorists have ventured to repudiate it, and it undoubtedly lies at the basis of current monetary thinking. Following his exposition of the quantity theory, the author now subjects it to destructive criticism. His method of attack has already been indicated. He believes that normal credit has no effect upon prices, and since the bulk of transactions are effected by the use of credit, the volume of business is not compared, to more than a small extent, with the amount of cash. This takes place in the retail market, but, as he contends, before this comparison is made, prices have been fixed in the wholesale markets without the use of money. How then, he asks, can the transfers of cash materially influence the general level of prices? Moreover, he argues that the advocates of the quantity theory have fixed their attention upon the money side of the price ratio and have ignored the influences operating upon commodities. Finally the quantity theory will not bear the test of facts. By reference to several investigations of this subject, Professor Laughlin shows that, as a matter of fact, the fluctuations of prices have not corresponded with the movement of currency whether considered in its gross or per capita amount, and that an equal lack of correspondence is visible in comparing the movement of prices with that of the deposit currency.

We now approach the most important portion of this study, in which the author presents what he considers to be the true theory of prices, which may be summarized in the following series of proportions:

1. Price is the value relation between commodities and the standard—gold.
2. A movement of prices is the result of changes in this relation.

3. Such changes are due to forces affecting either the supply or demand for gold, or the supply of or the demand for commodities.

4. These forces—quoting exactly—are as follows: (A) On the side of gold: (a) lowered cost of production or increased supply of gold, (b) decrease in the existing supply of gold or greater expense of mining, (c) increased demand for gold, (d) diminished demand for gold. (B) On the side of steel (taken as an example: (e) Lowered expense of production (or possible increase of supply under competition, (f) increased expenses of production or monopoly, (g) increased demand for steel (from owners of other goods), (h) diminished demand for steel (from owners of other goods).

5. Owing to the amount of gold in existence, causes affecting its supply must be extremely gradual in their operation. When the supply is naturally increased, the effect upon value is exerted not in the circulation, since "the injection of new gold into the channels of trade as a medium of exchange would be resisted by the business habits of the community," but in the arts where it would be compared with wheat and steel. The method by which this change in value is effected is through the agency of the mint, which converts the gold plate diminished in value as compared with wheat, into gold dollars also diminished in value. The cause of the decline in the value of gold is not the offering of more gold in the form of goods, but is the consequence of the valuation process which has already taken place before the monetary form is assumed.

6. A decrease in the cost of production of gold also affects its value. "Provisions and similar farm products, whose expenses of production have undergone little change, buy a very much greater weight of gold than formerly, because the exertion and outlay for obtaining the new gold there is less relatively to that of the provisions." Costs are compared at the mines and adjacent farms.

7. The demand for gold arises: (1) From the arts, (2) bank reserves, to test the amount of credit which can be extended, and (3) as a medium of exchange, where it is of little present consequence.

8. Supposing now that gold is a constant, the gold value of steel is affected by the following influences: (a) Any change in the cost of producing steel, or in the degree of monopoly power which its producers possess. (b) Any change in the demand for steel.

10. Since the demand for and the supply of gold are only slowly affected, the price of steel from one year to another, always allowing for the influence of abnormal credit, is chiefly affected by causes affecting the cost of production or the demand for steel.

11. Explanations of current price movements are to be sought among the causes which influence the supply of and the demand for commodities. Considerations affecting the money side are of much less importance.

The remainder of the book is occupied with discussions of Gresham's Law, Legal Tender and kindred topics, essential to the complete exposition of the subject, but not of sufficient controversial importance to warrant analysis in this place.

In summing up Professor Laughlin's work as a whole, it is difficult to

offer specific criticisms without attacking the basis of his contention, that the mechanism of exchange does not rest on money but that its basis is property. When this is accepted, the remaining propositions follow with the certainty of mathematics. Those of his readers who cannot approve his major premise, while unable to withhold their admiration from the energetic ability with which the author has penetrated every part of his subject, and the consummate arts of his style and arrangement which are worthy of the best traditions of the classical school, will not go along with him to the conclusions of his argument.

The argument of the *Principles of Money* aims to minimizing the importance of coined money in the modern system of exchange and to enlarge the previous estimate of the importance of the forces affecting the commodity side of the price ratio. Professor Laughlin's critics may find in the discussion which leads to this result, an extreme reaction from the exaggeration of the importance of the medium of exchange which prevailed a few years since. No one can deny, however, that while this point of view may be open to question in several places, particularly, we may remark in passing, in the treatment of the relations between cost of production and prices, the entire volume is a marvel of careful, patient scholarship, which will be read with appreciation and with great profit by all students of monetary history and theory, and which will rank with the historic contributions to the literature of money.

EDWARD SHERWOOD MEADE.

University of Pennsylvania.

A History of the Middle Ages. By DANA CARLETON MUNRO. Pp. xii, 242. Price, \$0.90. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1902.

It is hard to introduce much originality into a text-book. The limitations of space, of the capacity of the students for whom it is intended, of the necessarily commonplace material which it must include, are so great as apparently to confine the author to a very well-beaten track. Nevertheless Professor Munro has written a text-book of veritable originality. It is original in the first place in its balance between description of institutions and narrative of events. One of the great mediæval institutions after another—the church, feudalism, the monastic orders, the universities—emerges into prominence and is made clear by a wise selection of leading characteristics and a simple direct description. Interwoven with these is a thread of narrative—the downfall of the Carolingian empire, the attacks of the Northmen, the strife over investitures, the Norman Conquest, the Crusades—that leaves out of the story no event of leading significance, short as the account must often be. Secondly, it is original in that it shows such good scholarship. Short as the book is and concrete as is the method of presentation, every chapter and subject dealt with reflects familiarity with the most detailed, scholarly and recent work in that particular subject. The illustrations bear the same mark of rigorous authenticity and originality. It is only recently that specialists in various fields have been drawn into the ranks of text-book writers, and it

has been a matter of question whether they would prove capable of giving to their books the brevity and simplicity necessary for school books. It is hard to see how a book could be more plain, easy of comprehension and direct in statement than Professor Munro has made this. Its combination of a high tone of scholarly excellence with clearness and simplicity is certainly to be admired and praised. Finally, this book is original in its divisions of periods. The middle ages are considered to cover only the period from about A. D. 800 to about A. D. 1300. The events of the period from the fall of the Western Roman empire to the rise of that of Charles the Great are relegated to a brief introduction. The events of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries are left to be treated of with modern times or to be slurred over altogether. The first of these truncations is due to the plan of periods recommended by the "Committee of Seven," which combines the study of the first eight Christian centuries with that of ancient times, largely for pedagogical reasons. The abbreviation of the middle ages at the other end is due to Professor Munro's own preference. Professor Munro would doubtless contend that the distinction of periods is an internal and self-existing one, which we cannot control, and not a mere matter of division for convenience; that the middle ages really did come to an end and modern times begin with the close of the thirteenth century. We are inclined to think this claim somewhat fanciful and strained, and to feel that the traditional placing of the division line between the middle ages and modern times well toward the close of the fifteenth century has much to justify and commend it.

However, this book is evidently intended to be used with a companion work to make a full year's study, and the division of periods therefore makes comparatively little difference. Certainly this can detract but little from an expression of unreserved praise and sincere commendation of the book.

E. P. CHEYNEY.

University of Pennsylvania.

Heredity and Social Progress. By SIMON N. PATTEN, Ph. D. Pp. viii, 214. Price, \$1.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1903.

With keen philosophic insight Professor Patten, in this his latest book, probes to the roots of biology and plants there the foundations of economics and the other social sciences. It is a bold deduction, wrought out with perfect logic, and shows one common principle active in every advance from the lowest unicellular organism to the highest social institution. To state this principle in the form of a title the work should have received the name, "a study in the significance of the *surplus*."

Five questions by way of a preface challenge attention. Two of these are of vital importance: "Does progress start from a deficit or from a surplus?" "Does education improve natural or acquired characters?" In the discussion of these questions Professor Patten has made profound additions to economic and social science. He calls attention to the fact that in the ultimate analysis growth precedes use in phylogeny, and thus a surplus in nutrition is the condition by which new structure arises and new species differentiate; that when

the variations consequent upon a surplus energy give the organism an advantage in its environment, the variation is retained, thus putting the organism one step forward toward a more complex or higher development. Nowhere has this principle been so strikingly stated as here.²⁵ "Animals do not develop teeth because they eat hard food. They eat hard food because they have teeth. They do not attain wings because they fly; they fly because they have wings. They do not develop nails because they scratch; they scratch because they have nails. Nor do they develop hair because they go into cold regions; they go north because they have hair."

These principles carefully worked out are shown to apply to society. Acquired characters are not directly inherited, that is do not become at once natural characters. Social institutions are secondary characters and must be drilled into the minds of children; "they are propagated by imitation, forethought, or some other conscious means." They produce surplus nutrition and energy, and hence permit a change in the habits or environment, and in the new environment characters which were acquired under the old régime may become natural.

In the chapter on "Emotion" the author makes a contribution to biology which is very striking and far-reaching, and goes a long way toward removing the gloom which the theory of natural selection brought into the camp of the economists.²⁶ "When deer are attacked by lions, if some were killed the elimination would create change through natural selection. But the emotion caused by the attack would act on the living and impel them to alter their habits and also to change their situation and perhaps their food as well. The whole herd would be affected by the emotion, and . . . a quick adjustment to new conditions would follow long before natural selection would have time to act." A fallacy of the older economists in the application of the theory of survival is shown.²⁷ "If the only effects of starvation, disease and destruction—the means through which natural selection acts—were on those killed, we might assume that the survivors were improved. But where disease or starvation kills one, it injures hundreds which live to propagate their kind." Emotion causes a shock, and recoil from the dangerous environment, and then "fresh growth restores all or even more than was lost." What we call character in men is the same as the natural character of the biologists, and arises from the energy created by a surplus. It modifies environment, while emotion modifies men. Deficits are guarded against by acquired characters. "A deficit does not develop new natural characters; it can become a cause of progress only by conscious means and through agencies which must be evoked anew in each generation. With it is handed down from father to son a tradition, a custom, a moral rule, or an imitation, but not an organic modification. It is a psychic and not a biologic inheritance, and represents the sum of the acquired characters that have proven of use to the species or the race."²⁸

From this analysis it is plain that the business of education is with the

²⁵ Page 29.

²⁶ Page 42.

²⁷ Page 43.

²⁸ Pages 130, 131.

transmission of acquired characters, whose purpose is to counteract the evil influence of a deficit. The real effect of this education is to fix social activity in grooves of custom and rule; a surplus makes such restriction obsolete and gives rise to protests and revolutions against the existing social régime.

The theory of natural selection still applies to society, but elimination does not necessarily mean the destruction of life. Its realm of destruction is transferred to capital, that extension of self which acts as an envelope between man, the animal, and the exterior physical world. Contests now between men, as in war, are usually decided within the realm of wealth. "The poorer instruments are eliminated by the contest, but not the poorer men. So far as men are killed off, it is probably the best men on each side."²⁹

So the great question is answered. Progress starts in a *surplus* and not in a deficit, as taught by current biologists and by the classical economists. This new point of view has very wide implications. "That morality begins in poverty and disappears in prosperity, and that salvation is for the poor alone, are preached with vigor in many ways."³⁰ But these teachings must be revised. "The vital point in all progress is the creation of a social surplus."³¹ "Remove the surplus and there is no progress; restore it, and there is no elimination."

These are contributions to scientific economics of the highest order. To enunciate principles which are fundamental in a whole group of sciences is not given to many men, and we are made to see at every turn that the proper equipment for students in economics, sociology and history is a thorough grounding in the principles of biology. Mr. Benjamin Kidd in his "Social Evolution" recognizes this need as pressing, yet ignored. "Even in economics, despite recent advances, it does not yet seem to be recognized that a knowledge of the fundamental principles of biology and of the laws which have controlled the development of life up to human society, is any necessary part of the outfit with which to approach the study of this science. In history the divorce is even more complete. We have the historian dealing with the record of life in its highest forms and recognized as the interpreter of the rich and varied record of man's social phenomena in the past; yet, strange to say, feeling it scarcely necessary to take any interest in those sciences which in the truest sense lead up to his subject. It is hardly to be wondered at if he has so far scarcely succeeded in raising history, even in name, to the dignity of a science."

Professor Patten is a pioneer in this most sane and healthy advance and stands as a leader—one of the best constructive students in social science America has produced. In fairness we must judge him great by virtue of the solid contribution he gives us and not because of an absence of error. The trained biologist in reading this book will doubtless reject as gratuitous and indefensible much of the chapter on "Reduction" and all of the theory of the origin of nerves and the sex of the brain, but these parts are not

²⁹ Page 203.

³⁰ Page 193.

³¹ Page 195.

relevant to the main discussion of the volume, and could be suppressed entirely without detracting from the power and merit of the real contribution.

J. PAUL GOODE.

University of Chicago.

Buddhist India. By T. W. RHYS-DAVIDS, LL. D., Ph. D. Pp. 332. Price, \$1.50 net. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1903.

This book, by the eminent Pali scholar, Professor Rhys-Davids, is not so much a history, in the sense of a narrative of events, as a description of the social, economic and religious conditions of India at the time of the rise of Buddhism. The work reflects in every chapter the author's high scholarship and wide knowledge of the original sources from which he draws his facts. It is, therefore, of great value to the student of early institutions. Historical research has been so much confined to European peoples as to deserve Spencer's criticism that it affords too narrow a basis of induction for the construction of any general theory of social evolution. The sociologist, therefore, should especially welcome all such works which embody critical historical research into the early social condition of non-European peoples.

Professor Rhys-Davids points out at the beginning that ancient India was not, as Brahmin tradition would make it, monarchical in government, but was democratic. This is shown by the fact that even as late as the Buddha's time, in the seventh century B. C., a number of free republics survived alongside of more or less powerful monarchies. The earliest form of government in India, as elsewhere, seems to have been the primitive democracy of the clan, based upon the blood-bond. The myth of the antiquity of the kingship was a later invention of the priests.

As to the clans, only the vaguest information can be obtained. Though they still retained for the most part their democratic form of organization, electing their *rajas* and transacting their business in public assemblies, it is evident that already in Gotama's time they had expanded far beyond the dimensions in which such a primitive democracy could be successful. Thus the Sakiya clan, to which the Buddha belonged, is estimated to have included about a million persons at this period. Here it may be noted that ancient India was not the same geographically as the India of to-day. In early Buddhist literature no place south of 23° N. is mentioned, and other evidence also shows that the India of that time was bounded by the Himalayas, the Indus, the Vindhya range and the delta of the Ganges. This territory was then relatively sparsely populated, containing probably not more than twenty million people and only about a dozen cities of considerable size.

The people lived then, as now, mainly in villages. The whole social structure of Indian life was consequently based upon the village. And the typical Aryan village in India, with its communal property and labor, does not seem much different from the Aryan village in early Europe. The divergences from the Aryan type, and there are many, Professor Rhys-Davids explains largely through the influence of the non-Aryan elements in the population.

Social distinctions in this population were not as definite as they became

later. The four castes or "colors," it is true, already existed, but the lines between them were not hard and fast, and "there was altogether a much freer possibility of change among the social ranks than is usually supposed." It is especially noted that the caste of the Brahmins did not hold the first place in the social scale (which they succeeded later in attaining), but this was held, as we should expect, by the caste of the nobles, the Kshatriyas. Professor Rhys-Davids' explanation of the origin of the caste system does not seem to us a good one. He makes the basis of caste the restrictions as to *connubium* and *commensality*, such as exist the world over. But the fact that the castes were called "colors" in ancient India would seem to suggest that they were primarily based upon racial distinctions, and that the system was largely the outcome of racial struggle.

The most interesting feature of the economic organization of ancient India was the large number of guilds. The power as well as the number of these guilds indicates a high degree of industrial development. Archæological finds indicate a corresponding development of the arts and sciences, and show that commerce was extensive and carried on through the medium of coined money.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD.

University of Missouri.

Money and Banking: An Introduction to the Study of Modern Currencies.

By WILLIAM A. SCOTT, Ph. D. Pp. 381. Price, \$2.00. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1903.

This book is intended to serve as a text for college courses in money and banking and as a hand-book for the average citizen. A good elementary text-book in this subject has been greatly needed, and few, if any, are better equipped than Professor Scott for the task of writing it. The book before us is written in the light of ten years' experience in teaching college classes. Its scope is satisfactory, its plan admirable, and the work as a whole is well balanced.

The arrangement is similar to that of Jevon's "Money and the Mechanism of Exchange." Professor Scott begins with a discussion of the Nature and Functions of Money; the Medium of Exchange: its Characteristics and Composition and the Relations between its Constituent Elements; the Standard of Value and Prices; the Quantity Theory of Prices; Metallic Money; and Government Paper Money. This is followed by chapters bearing the titles Bank Currency: its Nature, Operation and Advantages; the Forms of Bank Currency and the Limits of its Issue; Bank Currency: its Regulation and Safety; The Chief Banking Systems of the World; Banking Machinery and Methods; The Foreign Exchanges; and The Bank Rates. This is followed in turn by two chapters on bimetallism: the Theory of Bimetallism and the History of Bimetallism. Finally in appendices will be found a list of references, statistical tables relating chiefly to the production and coinage of the precious metals, and the par of exchange and gold points of the chief centres of foreign countries.

The exposition for the most part is excellent. The discussion throughout

is eminently sane. There is little that is new, but in the selection and rejection of materials the author has exercised good judgment. All the topics are well discussed, but Chapter IV on the Quantity Theory of Prices and Chapter XIV on the Theory of Bimetallism deserve special mention. On points at issue all important views are set forth clearly and fairly. At the end of each chapter a list of the principal references useful and ordinarily available for the American student is given so that he may extend his reading wisely and get further information. On the whole these references are well chosen. However, some omissions are not easily accounted for. For example, no reference is made in Chapter X dealing with the Chief Banking Systems of the World to Barnett's "State Banking in the United States since the Passage of the National Bank Act." Nor does the book contain a reference to the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance, with which every student of money and banking should become familiar.

Without further comment of this kind it may be said that the book has all the marks but two of an excellent text-book. The two shortcomings found are frequently met with in first editions, where the book has grown out of class-room lectures, viz: inaccuracy of details and lack of "up-to-dateness." The former is serious in this instance and the latter lays the author open to the charge of carelessness in revision for publication.

The inaccuracies, many of them important, are numerous in spite of the fact that "great pains have been taken to make the statements of fact in the book accurate." The nature of the inaccuracies may be seen from a few citations. The two-cent piece, the coinage of which was discontinued by the act of February 12, 1873, is mentioned several times (pages 20, 75, 76, 86) as one of the coins now struck at our mints. Our twenty-five-cent piece is said (78) to be known as a "bit" on the Pacific Coast and in the South. The silver dollar is said (84) always to have been invested with full legal-tender power, though later it is noted that in 1878 it was reinvested with this power. One is led to believe (114) that Congress in 1900 passed an act which fixed the minimum *gold* reserve for the redemption of government notes at \$150,000,000. The statement is made (161) without qualification "that at least one-third of the capital stock of national banks shall be invested in the registered bonds of the United States." Other statements are made so carelessly as to mislead the class of readers for which the book is written. Would a reader of this class, for example, not be misled by the statements that the Bank of England has "branches scattered all over the kingdom" (191) and that the Reichsbank has "numerous branches all over the empire" (199)?

When a book is published in 1903 the reader has a right to expect that absolute statements of fact in the present tense refer to what obtained within reasonably recent times. But if the reader accepted in this way statements made in this book he would frequently be deceived. The statements (160, 201) relative to the accumulation of a surplus by the Reichsbank and the divisions of profits between the German government and the stockholders do not hold true since the renewal of the charter of that institution in 1899. The limit to the note issues of the Bank of France was fixed by law at 4,000,000,000 francs (202), but in 1897 it was raised to 5,000,000,000 francs.

The statement (168) that "in the case of the Bank of England a limit of £16,450,000 is set to the issue of notes against which the bank is permitted to hold government securities" is no longer accurate. Other instances of this kind might be cited.

The reader of a book has a right to expect also that when statistical data are given they shall be brought down as nearly as may be to date. Professor Scott has made no effort to bring his statistical data down to a more recent date than the end of the year 1899 or the early part of the year 1900. The latest statistics (197-8) for our own bank currency are for July 1, 1900.

But all this adverse criticism is with reference to faults which may be corrected without great difficulty in a new edition, and when such corrections are made, the book should be an excellent college text.

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American Republic and Its Government. By JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN. Pp. 410. Price, \$2.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1903.

Professor Woodburn has written an admirable text-book suitable for colleges. In the eight chapters of his compact and well written work he deals with "The Principles of the Fathers," "The Federal Union," "The Presidency," "The Senate," "The House of Representatives," "The Judiciary," "The States" and "The Territories" respectively. The chapter on "The Principles of the Fathers" includes a discussion of the various rights which were supposedly the heritage of all Englishmen in 1776, such as the right of constitutional government, local self-government, jury trial, assembly and petition, assent to taxes, etc. In treating the historical basis of these rights, the author refers to the events of English history leading to the recognition of each right. In the chapter on "The Federal Union" is found the usual discussion of the various forms of government, including little that is new. In the difficult question as to the relation between the states and the Federal Government, the author gives a fairly satisfactory statement, that our government is federal in its origin but operates directly on the people and is, therefore, national in its operation. It is, perhaps, a matter for regret that so many of our writers on history and political science have not received a more thorough economic training, or if they have, that so little advantage has been taken of this field of thought in writing on political subjects. Had Professor Woodburn placed in Chapter II a few short paragraphs dealing with the economic and social reasons for the national character of our government and its operation, it would have lent much of interest and clearness to his discussion of the subject.

The chapter on "The Presidency" is disappointing; Professor Woodburn explains simply and with lucidity the essential differences between European executives and our own, laying great emphasis on the views of American statesmen at different periods in our history regarding the relations of Congress and the courts to the President; he also discusses at considerable length the method of election and its suggested amendments, together with the powers of the President.

In all of these chapters there is a wealth of historical detail but unfortunately very little of the broad point of view which should characterize the treatment of this portion of the subject. The growth of the executive power, it may be said without exaggeration, represents the greatest change in the internal structure of our government since the Civil War, yet the student might peruse the author's third chapter in detail without being impressed by that fact. Perhaps this omission was intentional; if so, it may have been contemplated that the instructor would give the necessary emphasis to the increasing importance of the executive, allowing the student to gather his materials from the book. But even such a plan seems questionable. The chapters on "The Senate" and "The House of Representatives" are likewise interesting, readable, thorough and modern. There is a great abundance of material relative to the historical growth of our peculiar system of apportionment, election, etc. Particularly commendable is the treatment of the House of Representatives, where the marvelous concentration of power, which has given the speaker and the committee on rules such unquestioned sway, is described with numerous illustrations, and at the conclusion of the chapter this material is brought into effective correlation by the development of a general principle or tendency. "The Judiciary" is fairly well described, although one misses a discussion of the important subject of government by injunction and its constitutional significance.

In discussing "The States and Their Government" Professor Woodburn does not attempt to give a description of governmental organization, but briefly summarizes the sphere of the states in their relation to the Federal Union. The same is true of the concluding chapter on "The Territories and Their Government." A description of territorial government would have been welcomed here but the author limits himself to a short statement of the constitutional aspects of our territorial legislation, emphasizing the recent Supreme Court decisions. There can be no doubt that in Professor Woodburn we have an admirable, clear and judicious writer, who it may be hoped will venture farther into the field of governmental discussion. Criticisms on the substance of a text-book on American government are likely to be determined too much by the peculiar interests of the critic. A single criticism regarding the method of presentation employed by Professor Woodburn might, however, be ventured. The author has employed such an abundance of material and has cited so freely from different writers that he has included much that is of purely transient value. Especially open to question is the citation of W. A. White's criticism of President Cleveland in a monthly magazine of recent date. Such a passage would perhaps look better in the Washington correspondence of an afternoon newspaper than in the footnote of a college text-book. In spite of this rather voracious appetite for magazine citations, the author has compiled a number of new and interesting references showing the practical operation of our political system. It is this thorough-going insistence on description of things as they are which constitutes the chief merit of the book.

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NOTES

I. MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

AMERICAN CITIES

Ninth Annual Meeting of the National Municipal League¹ was held at Detroit, Mich., April 22, 23 and 24, with First-Vice-President Richardson in the chair. The papers were about evenly divided between those that might appropriately be called descriptive reviews and those having to do with advance work and a discussion of fundamental principles. The secretary's report, as usual, was a survey of the whole municipal field in the United States. It dealt at length with Mayor Low's administration, pointing out wherein it had succeeded and the serious obstacles with which it and all other reform administrations had to contend, and with the recent elections in Philadelphia, Chicago, Cleveland, St. Louis and Toledo. It further dealt with the progress of the movements for civil service and nomination reforms and for uniform municipal accounting. Important papers on municipal conditions in St. Louis, Chicago, Minneapolis, Wisconsin, Detroit, Indianapolis, Ohio, California and the Philippines were contributed by James L. Blair, general counsel for the World's Fair; Frank H. Scott, vice-president Chicago Municipal Voters' League; W. A. Frisbee, city editor of the *Minneapolis Journal*; Dr. Amos Parker Wilder, editor of the *Wisconsin State Journal*; Sherman D. Callender, attorney for the Detroit Municipal League; Charles C. Brown, editor of the *Engineering News*; Harry A. Garfield, president of the Cleveland Municipal Association; Frank J. Symmes, president San Francisco Merchants' Association, and Dr. Paul S. Reinsch, author of "Colonial Government" and "World Politics."

The paper of Mr. Blair rebutted the idea recently given prevalence that St. Louis had not felt the enormity of the recent disclosures and had not taken steps to correct the evils which had been unearthed. He clearly set forth that on the other hand advances had been made. He described in detail the accomplishment of Rolla Wells's administration of the mayoralty and Joseph W. Folk's administration of the circuit attorneyship.

Mr. Scott's paper on Chicago contained a capital account of the truly remarkable work which had been accomplished by the Voters' League of that city. Mr. Frisbee's description of the "Minneapolis Housecleaning" revealed an almost incredible state of affairs. Dr. Reinsch's paper on "Municipal Government in the Philippines" was based upon a summary of the facts and laws relating to the subject made by Col. Clarence R. Edwards, the well-known chief of the Insular Bureau of the War Department. Dr. Wilder's paper on the "Wisconsin Situation" told of the great advances that have been accom-

¹ Contributed by Hon. Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

plished in that state along municipal lines. The descriptive papers reflected the strength and growth of the whole movement for municipal betterment as represented by the National Municipal League.

The question of a federation of civic forces was discussed at length in papers by J. Horace McFarland, president of the American League for Civic Improvement; Charles Mulford Robinson, secretary of the American Park and Outdoor Art Association; Charles Richardson, vice-president of the National Municipal League, and Charles C. Brown, formerly vice-president of the American Society of Municipal Improvement. One and all spoke in favor of co-operation and federation and a motion was adopted endorsing the idea of a civic alliance put forward by a committee of the American Park and Outdoor Art Association.

The papers discussing advance work and fundamental questions were contributed by Horace E. Deming on Nomination Reform, Dr. John A. Fairlie and Professor John B. Davis on the Teaching of Municipal Government in Educational Institutions, Wilson L. Gill on the School City, and Dr. E. M. Hartwell on Uniform Municipal Accounting and Statistics, on which subjects papers were also contributed by Harvey S. Chase and M. N. Baker.

Mr. Deming's paper dealt with the political principles underlying the movement for direct and open primaries. It cannot well be summarized, but to all who are interested in this phase of the subject it will repay a careful reading. Professor Fairlie's paper displayed his usual care and research, and with the companion paper of Professor J. B. Davis, of the Detroit High School, constitutes a most important contribution to the subject of instruction in municipal government, at which the league has been at work now for three years with significant results. Dr. Hartwell's paper set forth in a striking fashion the inadequacy of the bulk of municipal statistics, reinforcing his argument with numerous telling illustrations. Mr. Chase's paper dealt with the work accomplished in Ohio under the new public accounting act. The proceedings will be published in full this autumn.

The following officers were elected to serve for the ensuing year: Honorary president, James C. Carter, New York; president, Charles J. Bonaparte, Baltimore; first vice-president, Charles Richardson, Philadelphia; second vice-president, Samuel B. Capen, Boston; third vice-president, Thomas N. Strong; fourth vice-president, H. Dickson Bruns; fifth vice-president, Edmund J. James; secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff; treasurer, George Burnham, Jr., and the following executive committee: Horace E. Deming, chairman; New York; William G. Low, Brooklyn; George W. Guthrie, Pittsburg; Harry A. Garfield, Cleveland; Hector McIntosh; William P. Bancroft, Wilmington; Elliott H. Pendleton, Cincinnati; James L. Blair, St. Louis; John Davis, Detroit; Dudley Tibbits, Troy; John A. Butler, Milwaukee; Oliver McClintock, Pittsburg; Harry B. French, Philadelphia; Albert Bushnell Hart, Cambridge; Harry T. Atkins, Cincinnati; Davis H. Lawrence, Duluth.

National Municipal League.—*Report of Secretary.* The annual report of the secretary of the league, the Hon. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, presents a most encouraging picture of the improvement of municipal conditions throughout the United States. In almost every large city of the United States the

reform party has been successful either in electing its candidates or in scoring a large increase in the number of votes. Even Philadelphia, which for so many years has shown such hopeless signs of apathy, has awakened to the possibility of a new era under the guidance of the recently elected mayor.

Charter Revision. In speaking of charter reform Secretary Woodruff says: "In every part of the country the movement for charter reform is manifesting itself, and the publications of the National Municipal League, and especially the 'Municipal Program,' have been widely used. The demand for a larger measure of home rule continues unabated. The intolerable interference by state legislatures, such as we constantly see in Pennsylvania and New York, is in every way working its own cure. It is creating an adverse public sentiment that will eventually clothe our cities with sufficient powers to transact their business free from outside dictation or domination. Denver has just secured a great home-rule victory and is busy preparing to reap the benefits.

Ohio's Lost Opportunity. Ohio missed a great opportunity to make a notable contribution to charter reform and the cause of home rule. By a single decision the Supreme Court of the state wiped out the whole network of special legislation and gave to the legislature an unusual opportunity, but it failed to seize it and permitted politics instead of sound public policy to control. As has already been noted, the whole progress of the state toward rational municipal government was halted and turned back to enable the politicians to gain control of a single city. Now that they have signally failed in this, possibly they will give the cities what they have all along needed and in many cases demanded, a fuller and freer opportunity to govern themselves.

Charter Revision in Chicago. In Chicago the whole question has become a burning one, and a charter convention has been formed for the express purpose of advancing the project. St. Louis is now utilizing the new powers recently conferred upon her. Minneapolis and Wilmington, Del., are making further efforts to secure new instruments. Los Angeles has secured one which contains many valuable features, not the least important being the establishment of a civil service system to apply to every department of the city.

Uniform Accounting. Uniform municipal accounting has also made considerable progress. Ohio passed a public-accounting bill last year, which has since been put into force and effect under the supervision of our own member, Mr. Harvey S. Chase. Similar measures have been introduced, and possibly, by this time, passed, in the legislatures of Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Wisconsin and Michigan. Boston, Baltimore and Chicago have municipal statistical bureaus. As a whole session of the present conference will be devoted to the subject, nothing further need be said in this connection, except to chronicle the sad and untimely death of Mr. Charles Waldo Haskins, who remodeled the Chicago accounts and was an honored and useful member of the league's committee on uniform municipal accounting.

The report makes a plea for a consolidation or rather closer co-operation of the agencies that are now striving for municipal improvement:

"The rapid multiplication of agencies for municipal improvement has created a sentiment in favor of co-operation to increase efficiency and elimi-

nate possible duplication of efforts. So we find numerous city and state federations, and there is really no reason why there should not be a federation of all the national civic bodies, hence the consideration of this subject at the present session of the National Municipal League and its discussion by representatives of the several bodies most deeply interested. The American Park and Outdoor Art Association at its last annual meeting appointed a committee to deal with the whole subject, and out of this and the activities of kindred bodies working along similar lines we may expect something substantial."

Montana.²—*Quasi Public Works.* The legislative assembly of Montana has enacted a law which absolutely forbids the granting of any franchise whatever by a city or town council until the proposed franchise has been approved by a majority vote of the tax-paying freeholders resident in the city.

The report of the state commissioner of statistics shows franchises already in effect for waterworks in Butte, Helena, Anaconda, Missoula and Kalispell, and for street-car lines in Butte, Great Falls, Helena, Anaconda and Bozeman. The cities of Great Falls, Bozeman, Lewistown, Miles City, White Sulphur Springs, Red Lodge, Philipsburg and Fort Benton operate their own waterworks; the cities of Dillon and Chinook are establishing waterworks the present season, and the city of Helena is negotiating for the acquisition of the private plant. Miles City operates an electric light plant in connection with the waterworks.

Massachusetts.—*Uniformity in Municipal Accounting.*—During the last few years the movement in favor of uniformity in municipal accounting has borne fruit in a number of states. The desirability of such a system is generally recognized by every student of municipal affairs and in a number of cases has been urged upon the legislatures by the executive officials of various states. Governor Bates in his recent message to the Massachusetts legislature, puts the case very strongly in the following terms:

"Uniformity in city government is to be desired. General laws based on the experience of municipalities in the past would be of benefit to all. There should be provision by which each municipality could profit from the experience of the others. It has recently been brought forcibly to the public attention that there is no uniform system of municipal accounting in this commonwealth such as would permit the contrasting of the expenses of one municipality for a given purpose with those of another for the same purpose, thereby revealing extravagance, if such existed, and tending to encourage more economical administration.

"A law which would provide for such uniformity in the keeping of the accounts as would render possible such comparison would be of great benefit. Through the publicity which such a system would make possible, not only would greater economy be effected, but also useful knowledge would be obtained bearing upon the problems of municipal industries such as furnish water, gas and electricity. I may also add that the adoption of such a system would tend to the advantage of the municipalities in the matter of their credit, which would appear in the reduced rates at which bonds might be issued. Good

²Communication of H. H. Swain, President Montana State Normal College.

results have been derived from the laws in this state providing for a uniform system of accounting under which reports are made to the controller of county accounts. Uniform municipal accounting is but another step in the same direction. I trust you may find it possible to take favorable action along this line. This need not result in the establishment of a new department, but should properly be made a part of the work of the state auditor's department."

Pennsylvania.—Ownership of Public Works. The governor of Pennsylvania has recently vetoed a bill passed by both houses, which was designed to hand over to private corporations the drainage systems in townships of the first class. The governor's veto message is interesting, as it indicates his attitude towards the question of the ownership of public utilities. He points out that the maintenance of a system of sewerage is a municipal function and that sewers ought not to be made a subject of barter and sale.

Continuing, he says, "A private corporation is not a means well adapted for the performance of necessary public work. There is a divided duty. The service to the public is always affected by the fact that it is important to make a profit for the holders of stock. The bill authorizes the taking or improving of private property, under the guise of public benefit, and then authorizes the sale of this property to individuals or corporations, who presumably would not buy unless they could be assured a profit to themselves. If the time is come when there is need for township sewerage, the means ought to be provided by the townships, and the ownership ought to remain with them. The tendency of corporations to secure control of public works with a view to anticipated profits, and the easy-going disposition of the representatives of municipalities to permit such control to be secured, ought not to be encouraged or extended."

Direct Nominations.³—The system of direct nomination of candidates is constantly finding greater favor. During the past year the governors of nine states, Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Michigan, Wisconsin, Colorado, Texas and Oregon, referred to the subject of nomination reform. In the legislatures of twenty states, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, South Carolina, Texas, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Kansas, North Dakota, California, Idaho, Washington, Oregon and California, bills were introduced dealing with the question in some phase or other. Six states, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Texas, Michigan and Wisconsin, passed primary bills. The Massachusetts law established direct primaries in Boston, and the law may be extended to cover all the cities in the state if successful there. The New Jersey law establishes direct primaries throughout the state. The New York law amends the existing statute and applying only to Greater New York is designed to prevent colonizing. The Michigan laws (three in number) establish direct primaries in Wayne, Kent and Muskegon Counties, the three most populous in the state. The Wisconsin law, which is the most complete and far reaching, does not become operative until after the voters have a chance to vote on it at the November, 1904, election.

The salient feature of these laws is the fixing of a single day for all

³ Contributed by Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Secretary National Municipal League.

primaries; official supervision; the application of the principle of the Australian ballot, and provisions that the candidates receiving the highest votes shall be declared the nominees, thus eliminating the easily controlled and all too frequently corrupt nominating conventions. The success of the Minnesota law has proved to be a great stimulus to all direct nomination reformers.

New York City.⁴—*Plan for Relieving Taxation.* A forty-four page pamphlet has recently been issued which contains interesting information relative to a proposed plan to relieve taxation in New York City. Besides the text of a proposed legislative act, this pamphlet contains letters from Messrs. Stevenson, Grout and Levey, explaining the measure; memoranda of laws and ordinances relating to the sinking fund; and opinions upon the constitutionality of the plan by Judge Dillon, Mr. G. L. Rives, corporation counsel, Messrs. Strong and Cadwalader, Shepard and Whalen.

The so-called sinking fund problem which New York is called upon to solve arises from the fact that the city is annually placing in its sinking fund sums greatly in excess of the amount necessary ultimately to redeem the obligations which that fund is designed to meet. In 1844 an ordinance was passed appropriating to the sinking fund certain sources of revenue, such as the income from docks, water rents, license and franchise fees. In 1878 the legislature readjusted the sinking fund system by passing the "Bonded Indebtedness Act," section four of which contained a contractual pledge, by which certain revenues of the city were pledged to the sinking fund for the redemption of the city debt until all of the said debt was paid.

From this effort to throw every possible safeguard around the city's obligations has arisen the present embarrassing situation. The revenues pledged by the law of 1878 are so much in excess of the proportionate annual amount necessary to meet the ultimate obligation of the fund, that in 1928, when the final obligation is due, it is estimated there will be in the sinking fund nearly three hundred million dollars in excess of the amount required to redeem its obligations. (The excess during 1902 was \$8,465,106.)

The "sinking fund burden," then, is due to the fact that there are annually being collected and paid into the sinking fund sums greatly in excess of the amount needed ultimately to meet the obligations of that fund. The income from dock and water rents, franchise and license fees, etc., which in 1878 was not more than sufficient for sinking fund purposes, is now greatly in excess of the amount so needed. But no part of this income from these sources can be diverted from the sinking fund for the general purposes of the city, on account of the contract feature of the law of 1878, which contained a pledge to creditors that the funds then being paid into the sinking fund should continue to be paid into it until its obligations were canceled in 1928. The difference between the amount really needed for the sinking fund and the amount actually paid in (in 1902 over eight millions) is the additional burden placed upon the taxpayers by reason of this law.

Mr. James W. Stevenson, deputy comptroller, has proposed a plan to relieve this situation. This plan is, in brief, to authorize the annual issue of bonds to be known as "general fund bonds," to an amount equal to the

⁴ Contributed by W. B. Guitteau, Toledo, Ohio

difference between the annual net revenues of the sinking fund and the amount which would be required by that fund for scientific debt amortization. Such bonds to be purchased only by the commissioners of the sinking fund, and the proceeds paid into the fund for the reduction of taxation. Interest is to be paid on these bonds, but upon their cancellation no payment of cash into the sinking fund is to be made, provided that at that time all outstanding bonds redeemable from the sinking fund are paid. In other words, the proposed general fund bonds are only nominal additions to the funded debt, whose sole object is to render available for general purposes revenues which must be paid into the sinking fund, but which are in excess of the requirements of that fund. It is an admittedly technical device to meet a technical and artificial condition.

The plan thus briefly outlined has been approved by Mayor Low, Comptroller Edward M. Grout and Edgar J. Levey, former deputy comptroller. Opinions of five leading New York attorneys are given at length, all of whom agree that the proposed measure is constitutional. Judge Dillon declares: "In my opinion, not only will the proposed statute, if enacted, be free from objection on constitutional or other legal grounds, but its enactment is desirable and advisable so far as it concerns the city's creditors, as well as so far as it concerns the city." Messrs. Strong and Cadwalader, while agreeing that the plan is "technically legal," point out that while in *form* it authorizes an issue and purchase of bonds (thus complying with the legal requirement that sinking fund revenues must be invested in corporate stock of the city), in *substance* the plan is nothing but an application of sinking fund moneys to the general expenses of city government; "an application not towards the reduction of city debt, but to the relief of taxation, a purpose which though permitted by the *letter* of the contract, is certainly contrary to the *purpose* it was designed to accomplish." The feature of the plan of especial interest to taxpayers is that it would reduce taxation by 10 per cent at present, and by a still larger percentage in subsequent years.

The Municipal Association of Cleveland.⁵—The Municipal Association of Cleveland interests itself in a wider range of activities than those which engage the attention of the greater number of good-government organizations in other cities. Because the political affairs of the county of Cuyahoga and of the city of Cleveland are closely related, it exerts its influence in the selection of county officials as well as in the selection of officials whose duties are purely municipal. The direction of public expenditures, the conduct of officials and matters of administration have been regarded as proper subjects for its consideration.

An opinion rendered by the Supreme Court of Ohio in the spring of 1902 made necessary the convening of the legislature in extraordinary session for the enacting of a uniform code for the government of Ohio municipal corporations. Prior to the meeting of the legislature the executive committee of the association made a careful study of representative codes in operation throughout the country and collected a considerable amount of information, both academic and practical, bearing upon the subject. The association availed itself

⁵ Contributed by F. E. Stevens, Secretary Municipal Association of Cleveland.

of an opportunity offered, through invitation from the code committee of the legislature, to submit its conclusions. Two members of the executive committee, having been delegated for that purpose, urged upon the legislature the adoption of the "Federal Plan" of municipal government. The "Federal Plan" corresponds in all essential details with the municipal program prepared by a committee of the National Municipal League. The executive committee of the association was unanimous in its recommendation of this system. The legislature adopted a board plan of government similar to that which for some time has been in force in Cincinnati.

The association has striven for non-partisanship in local affairs. The election of county officials in November last was peculiarly gratifying from this point of view. In its published bulletins giving records and qualifications of the twelve officials elected on the county ticket the association recommended six, indicated a preference for two, assumed a neutral or indifferent attitude as to three and urged the defeat of one. Seven Democrats and five Republicans were elected with pluralities ranging from 500 to 9,000.

In the municipal campaign of this year the association opposed the re-election of Hon. Tom L. Johnson to the mayoralty. In giving the reason for this opposition the bulletin said: "We condemn as inimical to public morals his lax treatment of the midnight and Sunday closing ordinances and as dangerous to good government his system of demanding and receiving from councilmanic candidates pre-election pledges. . . . When machine builders and political bosses seek election to office they should, in the judgment of the association, be opposed, even though as men they bear good reputations." Mr. Johnson was elected on a platform pledging him and the candidates on his ticket to every effort to secure the installation of a street railway system with three-cent cash fare and universal transfers.

Street Railways. Mayor Johnson's efforts to establish a new street railway system are now claiming public attention. Some time ago an ordinance passed the city council inviting competitive bids for the construction of street railway lines along eleven routes prescribed in the ordinances. This measure specified that bids would not be considered which provided for a rate higher than three-cent cash fare. But two bidders responded asking for franchises over only two of the routes. One of the bidders desires a franchise as a link in a proposed suburban line. The other bidder, the People's Railway Company, asks a franchise over one of the more desirable routes. Three-cent cash fare, five tickets for fifteen cents and universal transfers over all lines hereafter to be constructed by the company or its successors are offered.

Mayor Johnson states that he is not disappointed over the failure to secure a greater number of bids. He anticipates a contest in the courts and is of the opinion that this contest will be simplified if it involves but one route. Legal obstacles having once been removed, he claims that additional lines may more readily be constructed through the medium of grants of extensions to the established line than through original grants of franchise.

The Cleveland Electric Railway Company, which owns all existing lines, has made a formal protest, basing its objection principally upon the claim that it was unable to submit proposals for the construction of lines over the new

routes because of the provision limiting the rate of fare to three cents. This provision it claims works a hardship and cannot be complied with. This company will at an early date apply to the city council for franchises permitting it to extend its lines over some of the routes prescribed in the three-cent fare railway ordinances. A spirited contest will undoubtedly result. The Cleveland Electric Railway Company now sells six tickets for twenty-five cents and provides universal transfers. These terms have been in force since July 1 of this year.

Cincinnati.^a—*Civic Organization.* During the recent spring campaign there was organized The Citizens' Municipal Party. Since the election, in which this new party was overwhelmingly defeated, it has been deemed wise to continue the organization. An executive committee composed of active and fearless men has been chosen, and this committee will guard the rights of all citizens. Already the re-trial of a former official charged with embezzlement has been demanded, and the prosecuting attorney has consented. The committee is likewise demanding that suits against the bondsmen of other defaulting officials be prosecuted. The committee is issuing a four-page weekly, called *The Citizens' Bulletin*, devoted to the interests of good local government.

Constitutional Amendments. The electors of the State of Ohio will have an opportunity of voting for five constitutional amendments this fall. (1) Granting the governor a veto. This amendment, unlike the provision of the United States Constitution and those of most of the states, gives the governor the power of disapproving of any part of a bill, and also provides that to override the veto on repassage, the bill must receive, in addition to a two-thirds vote, at least the same number of votes that the measure had originally. Owing to these peculiar features the amendment has been disapproved of by the State Bar Association, but as the Republican Convention indorsed the same, it will undoubtedly become a law. (2) To abolish the double stock liability of corporations; this amendment has been indorsed and will no doubt prevail. (3) To give each county at least one representative in the house of representatives; this also will prevail. The other two amendments, one (4) providing for the classification of property for purposes of taxation, and (5) providing for three classes of cities, 100,000 or more, less than 100,000 and more than 25,000, and less than 25,000, so as to permit legislation by classes, have not been indorsed by the Republican Convention, and will, therefore, probably fail.

Heretofore votes on constitutional amendments have been on separate ballots, but this year by law it has been provided that any party may approve or disapprove of any amendment, and that when this is done, such amendment shall be printed on the official ballot, and a vote for the straight ticket shall be counted as a vote in favor of the action taken by the party on the amendment. As the Republican party is the dominant party in Ohio, and as that party has declared in favor of giving the governor a veto, abolishing double-stock liability on corporations, and giving each county at least one

^aCommunication of Max B. May, Esq., Cincinnati, Ohio.

representative in the house of representatives, it is believed that these amendments will be adopted, and that the others will fail.

Providence.—*Street Railways.* By act of the General Assembly, May 23, 1893, the Union Railroad Company was given an exclusive franchise in Providence for twenty years from May 3, 1892. The contract with the city contains the usual provisions for paving and for the ordering of new lines or change of old ones by the city. The rate of special tax on gross earnings was 3 per cent up to 1897; 5 per cent since then. The act did not provide for transfers, and for ten years the people demanded them in vain. Eighteen months ago, to meet the rising tide of public sentiment, the company put forward a transfer station plan. This met with such disfavor that it was finally dropped. The company, however, announced itself as "unalterably opposed to transfer tickets," but the re-election of Mayor D. L. D. Granger in November, 1901, on that issue, by a vote more than double that of his opponent, opened the eyes of the company. We now have transfer tickets, but it took ten years to get them. The Union Railroad Company sold out or was leased in 1895 to the United Traction Company of New Jersey, which in turn sold to the Rhode Island Company last spring, and it, in turn, to the Rhode Island Securities Company. In this last transaction was a lease of the lines for 999 years, during which period there is a guarantee of 5 per cent on the \$8,000,000 stock of the Traction Company. The men in these companies are for the most part the same. They desire a perpetual franchise, and they think they have it. By the terms of an act passed by the legislature in May, 1898, by which the company is to pay to the state an annual tax of 1 per cent on its gross income, it was guaranteed all the rights and privileges it then had, *so long as it should pay that tax*. However, it is doubted by many good lawyers whether this does give a perpetual franchise. The company's property is probably worth something like \$5,000,000. It is capitalized (stock and bonds) at \$17,000,000; and is taxed for \$1,396,000.

After some years of agitation, the street railway employees obtained from the legislature last spring, a law making ten hours within twelve, a day's work for them. This is similar to the Massachusetts law. The company at first announced that it would comply with the law, but at the last moment it posted notices telling its employees that any who wished to work the ten hours could do so, but with a corresponding reduction in wages (10 to 20 per cent), and also advising them that they could make a special contract to work the old hours, despite the law. The men, recently organized, struck, except a few of the oldest. The strike, possibly injudicious, and at any rate not well managed, was broken by the importation of professional "strike-breakers," furnished by a combination of the street railroad companies of the country, and the men are nearly back at work again. Several indictments have been found against the company, and the cases will be carried to the United States Supreme Court, to determine whether the law is constitutional. Meanwhile it is nullified.

The following table shows the receipts from the special taxes laid on the gross income of the four companies working the public utilities:

Table of the Special Taxes on Gross Receipts of the Public Utilities Corporations of Providence.

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	Telephone Company.	Gas Company.	Electric Light Company.	Street Railroad Company.	Total.
1892					\$7,025
1893	\$2,325	\$15,749	\$7,661	\$22,346	48,081
1894	2,498	16,097	13,725†	22,070	51,465
1895	2,555	17,123	9,037	24,413	53,128
1896	2,821	18,702	13,102	27,430	62,065
1897	3,131	16,500	13,705	26,745	60,281
1898	3,091	17,504	14,364	45,368	80,327
1899	3,264	19,474	25,434	46,004	94,176
1900	5,360*	21,254	27,548	51,174	105,336
1901	7,878	21,758	29,107	58,435	117,178
1902	8,775	22,794	33,319	61,092	125,980

* Nine months.

† Fifteen months.

The \$7,025 in 1892 was for "use of streets."

Rates of taxes are as follows:

Telephone Company, 1½ per cent to and including 1899, 3 per cent after that.

Gas Company, 3 per cent.

Electric Light Company, 3 per cent to and including 1898, 5 per cent after that.

Street Railway Company, 3 per cent to and including 1897, 5 per cent after that.

Water Works.—The Providence Water Works is the only public utility owned and managed by the city. The cost of construction and maintenance to September 30, 1901, was in round numbers, nine millions, and interest payments the same. Total receipts were \$11,000,000, covering interest and reducing net cost to \$7,000,000. Last year the receipts were \$615,000, and after interest and cost of management were paid, \$252,000 was added to the sinking fund, which now amounts to about a million dollars. Rates are moderate, being a minimum of \$10,000 a year per dwelling house when a meter is used, and twenty cents per 1,000 gallons for excess over the limit of 50,000 gallons.

The city has just contracted for a sand filter plant to cost a million dollars. At the present rate the receipts will pay the added interest and sink the new debt long before its maturity. Comparing the water works with the four other public utilities, we find that their special tax was \$125,900 in 1902, and their regular tax on property about \$70,000, making a total revenue of about \$196,000. The water works alone gave a net revenue of \$252,000. Managed so quietly and easily as to attract no attention, and with such splendid financial success, it is a standing answer to the doctrinaire objectors to municipal ownership.

Duluth.⁷—*Civic Activity.* One notable demonstration of sustained civic progress may be cited. Duluth has made a success of the municipal administration of her gas plant, and is now furnishing gas to consumers for all purposes at \$1.00 per thousand feet, with 90 cents per thousand in clear view in the near future. It so happens, that, in connection with the establishment of a new local industry, to-wit: the manufacture of coke, a gas suitable for lighting and heating purposes is to be generated in large quantities as a by-product. This naturally led up to the question of reaching the consumers now supplied by the municipal plant, and the question of buying or leasing the municipal gas plant was seriously broached.

The city was put to the test and the permanency of municipal control determined. It was a crucial moment, but the civic spirit of the citizens generally and of the board of Water and Light Commissioners and the common council, in particular, was too well developed to permit any such retrogression, and the principle of municipal control remained triumphant.

The upshot of the matter was an amicable and wholesome arrangement with the private company by which the city, under conditions dictated by it and on a most favorable and graduated basis of cost, will become the exclusive customer of the private company for and the sole distributee of all gas consumed by the citizens of Duluth for heating and lighting purposes, the city receiving the gas into its pipes at the line of the company's property and retaining exclusive control over the distribution thereof and over its present plant and all future extensions thereof.

FOREIGN

New South Wales.—*Street Railways.* Throughout Australia the railroads are the property of the government with one or two quite unimportant exceptions. The street railways, or tramways as they are called, are also owned by the government in some states, while in others they are the property of private companies. In New South Wales, which is the oldest state on the continent, the tramways belong to the government and are under the control of the railway commissioners, to the chief of whom, Mr. C. N. J. Oliver, we are indebted for most of the information contained in this communication.

The principal system of tramways is located in Sydney, the capital city of the state, which has a population of about 500,000 persons. As far back as 1861 the government recognized the necessity for improving the means of transit in the city and suburbs and established a system of horse-trams, which, however, after a fitful experience of some five years was discontinued. Nothing more was done in this direction for thirteen years when, for the purpose of forming a means of connection between the railway terminus and the great exhibition of 1879, a line of steam trams was built. The success which attended this experiment was so great that rapid extension took place and was continued uninterruptedly until four years ago, when the electric system was introduced, which is rapidly superseding steam traction. Mean-

⁷ Communication of W. G. Joerns, Esq., Duluth.

while some few miles of cable system has been laid, but the electric traction proving so superior it will soon be wholly converted.

At the present time there are about 87 miles of tramroad, equaling 130 miles of single track, within the city and suburban area, established at a capital cost of about two and one-half million pounds. Rapid extension is still proceeding and other routes will shortly be opened for traffic.

Under the Government Railway Act the commissioners have conferred upon them

"All necessary rights of ingress and egress in, to, and over the surface of any street, road, highway, or thoroughfare, proclaimed, reserved, or dedicated for the use of the public, or subject to any public easement,

for the purpose of constructing, repairing, and maintaining the tramways. They are also empowered to "open up the surface of any road" for the same purposes; and may

erect, support and maintain above the level of, and across any such road, such wires and other electric apparatus as are, in their opinion, necessary for the official use and maintenance of electric traction on such tramways."

This act also confers upon the commissioners the power to make by-laws, which, after publication in the "Government Gazette," have the force of law. One of these by-laws enacts that

"Any person who shall without authority interfere with or alter any part of the tramway, or any work connected therewith, or with any mechanical or electrical appliances used in the working thereof, or shall wilfully place or throw or allow to be placed or thrown any gravel, stones, dirt, refuse, or other material whatsoever, in or upon any part of the tramway lines, or the works or wheels in connection therewith; or shall wilfully do, or cause to be done, anything which shall obstruct the free passage of any engine, motor, or vehicle used on the tramways or endanger the lives of persons traveling thereon shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £10.

Considerable conflict of opinion exists between the municipal authorities and the government as to the disturbance of the powers of the former over the streets because of the authority given to the railway commissioners. The following sections of "The Railway Act of 1901" define the extent of the commissioners' authority within municipal areas:

"The commissioners may construct tramways for conveying passengers and their luggage along any route within the city of Sydney and the suburbs thereof which may be approved by the governor, notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in or implied by the Sydney Corporation Act of 1879, the Municipalities Act 1897, or any other act whatsoever.

"Provided that nothing herein contained shall impair or be held to impair the lawful authority of the municipal council of the city of Sydney, or of the council of any municipality, or of any other corporation, company, or person to make all entries, and exercise all other

powers necessary for the construction, maintenance, and preservation of gasworks, waterworks, sewerageworks, and other works lawfully constructed underground in such streets, roads, highways, or thoroughfares along which any such tramway passes.

"The tramways shall in every case and throughout their course be laid at or about the general level of the streets and highways along which they are to be constructed, but the commissioners may with the consent of or by mutual agreement with the municipal council in which is vested the control and management of any street or highway alter and improve the levels thereof.

"Provided that all reasonable expenses incurred in the re-formation of the said streets or roads so altered and improved shall be borne by the commissioners unless otherwise agreed upon.

"The commissioners shall maintain in perfect order and repair the said tramways and the pavements of the same between the rails of the said tramways, and for the space of one foot and six inches on either side of such rails.

"The commissioners shall immediately repair any damage which may during or by reason of the construction of the said tramways be occasioned to any sewer, or drain, or gas or water main, and shall also repair all damages which may be occasioned by the working of the said tramways.

"The commissioners may erect buildings or other structures for the purposes of the said tramways, and may construct lines of approach thereto."

It will thus be seen that the commissioners have absolute power over the streets so far as the tramway system is concerned.

The municipal council contend that they are entitled to receive from the commissioners a rental for the use of the streets, their argument being that they are charged with the responsibility of maintaining the streets in good order and keeping them clean, and yet the tramway authorities are permitted to make the fullest use of the streets without making any contribution whatever to the revenues of the council. To this the commissioners reply that not only do they make and maintain the entire track of the tramways and eighteen inches beyond the outer rails (a total width of about twenty feet on a double track), but they carry vast numbers of passengers who otherwise would use omnibuses and other vehicles. Hence they contend that the municipal council is saved the cost of making good the wear and tear on the streets which other passenger vehicles would cause, and are moreover relieved of the entire cost of maintaining about a third of the roadways along which the trams pass.

Whatever may be said in favor of the municipal control of tramways, the fact remains that in Sydney at all events there is no central municipal authority to exercise control over the city and suburban areas. Whether or not the present system best meets the requirements of the people may be judged by the success which has attended the scheme. In this connection it is interesting to note that the expenditure on construction and equip-

ment throughout the whole state (the great bulk being in the metropolitan area) increased from £877,000 in 1888 to £2,830,000 in 1902. The mileage open to traffic in the same years increased from 38 to 104, and the earnings from £236,000 to £632,000. No statistics were kept for the former year of the number of passengers carried, but in 1902 the number exceeded 108,000,000, being an increase of nearly 15,000,000 on the figures for the previous year. A splendid service of trams is provided and the fares are remarkably low. The routes are divided into penny sections averaging two miles in length, the longest through run being eleven and one-half miles for which the fare is sixpence.

As already pointed out, in several of the principal cities of the other states the tramways are run by private enterprise, but in Sydney they are state-owned. Whatever may be the drawbacks of government undertakings in other directions, so far as the tramways are concerned the result has been the introduction of a most excellent system, ably controlled and meeting with the general approval of the public.

II. DEPARTMENT OF PHILANTHROPY, CHARITIES AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Impressions of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, Held in Atlanta, Georgia, May 6, 1903.¹—Impressions are those light and airy thoughts which spring up in the mind as a result of what we see and hear: those ideas which come back to memory when the occasion has passed away. They are not opinions, they are not convictions; merely passing thoughts born of seeing and hearing. The first thing that impressed me in this grand Conference was the extent and variety of thought and opinion represented by it. Persons of both sexes, of every age, of all creeds and conditions, gathered here freely and amicably; Roman Catholic, Protestant and Jew. Rich and poor; high and low; employer and employee; expert and novice were here. Perhaps no other movement could so unite contending and contradictory beliefs and interests. Charity has proved herself the very bond of peace and of all virtues. Pope's lines begin to fulfill themselves:

"In forms and views the world will disagree,
But all mankind's concern is charity."

Yet one thing I noticed that was absent, while every class and creed and condition was represented, no negro was to be seen in all the Conference. This was passing strange. In the midst of a population of nearly nine millions not a single representative of that race was present. In the midst of the negro problem not an exponent of any system or doctrine was able to speak for the negro as one of the race. Not a mile away was the Atlanta University, where Professor Dubois was at work, whose recent book, "The Souls of Black Folk," was exciting much popular interest. He was not present at any of the meetings. Booker T. Washington's school at Tuskegee is about five hours distant from Atlanta. Many of the delegates went to see the institution, but Mr. Washington did not come to tell the Conference what he had been saying in his latest book, "The Future of the Negro."

I was impressed with the prominence of the child in all the discussions. The oldest and the youngest men and women devoted their best energies to his defence. The dependent child, the toiling child,—the child defender made charity tender, beautiful, eloquent. One of the best meetings of the Conference was that on the subject of child labor. Miss Grace Adams, Mr. Edgar Murphy, Mr. Tompkins and Mr. Hoke Smith spoke with force and authority for the protection of the child. Surely something must be done in Georgia in the shape of protective legislation for children.

Next to the child question was the discussion of the home. The home was glorified and exalted, institutions, except for rare and extraordinary cases, were discussed and denounced. Dependent children, it was said again and again, must be placed in homes, not in asylums and orphanages. Social

¹ Contributed by Ben. J. R. Altemson, Esq.

settlements and boys' clubs must not lead the child away from home. Constant effort must be made to purify and humanize the home.

A point so much emphasized and so often repeated convinces us all that no place has the educational or moral value of a home. Next in importance was the insistence upon the family as a social unit. A question as to whether it was easier or more profitable to work with children than with older people, especially the parents, Miss Adams promptly answered. She said: "We find it easier to work with and for all the family, our constant effort is to keep the family together. We train the children to admire the arts and virtues which their parents have brought with them from the old country, we stimulate in them love for the mother tongue, Italian, Greek, Syrian, and also a taste for the crafts of the old home—needlework, embroidery, wood-carving and the like. We strive to unite the family, to make it the social unit." So said all the speakers. The effort plainly is to restore children to parents, husbands to wives, to unite broken ties and to foster family life.

Thinking of all these things the casual observer could not but come at last to the conclusion that all these problems are not social merely, or racial merely, or industrial merely, or even—recalling the Philippine difficulty—national merely. They are human problems, how to train the child, how to preserve the home, how to bind the family by sweet and enduring ties, how to live together as men and women doing justice, showing mercy and walking humbly with our God.

What charity does to-day for the poorer classes it may have to do to-morrow for the richer people, who have forgotten sometimes that the child, the home and the family are the fountain of life. And is not that the great need? Life—life more abundant—life that is life indeed. It was a great Conference. One of the delegates at least carries with him impressions and convictions that will enlarge his heart and quicken his zeal for all the years to come.

Convict Labor. In arranging the program for the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, provision is always made for visits to local institutions. The members of the Conference are men and women of experience in the management of penal affairs, who know all the difficulties of running institutions successfully, and fully appreciate the evils of sensationalism in the publication of criminal news items. Their visits are usually of the friendliest character, and their attitude is never hypercritical. When, therefore, they are so deeply stirred as they were by their visit to the Atlanta stockade, it is evident that a serious evil exists which must be remedied. This stockade is the place where the state sends all its minor offenders, who come under the jurisdiction of the police court. All of the men and boys wear leg-irons, and are worked out-of-doors in quarrying, truck-farming, and road-making. The work is wholesome and the prisoners are sufficiently fed, but the buildings and sleeping quarters are dirty and the dining-room, which is also the living-room and all, is unspeakably foul. As we stood on the platform overlooking this room, men, women and children ate and joked together in promiscuous proximity, though the whites kept themselves apart

from the blacks. Young lads were trying to brazen out their real shame in defiant association with hardened old-timers, a few soldiers in the uniform of the United States sat in sullen silence under the indignity of our public observation; and when, at the warden's direction, hymns were sung for our entertainment the negroes alone responded in emotional abandon, while the whites kept their lips tightly closed with an angry intensity which spoke more eloquently than words of the injustice of their treatment. We were shown the whipping chair, which is a rude invention of an official, and is so devised that the victim, after being strapped, is turned face downwards on the ground. The whipping boss spoke of it as a humane device because it kept the victim from thrashing about in his agony and thus injuring himself. Even his cries are smothered by the apparatus and the "*deus ex machina*" can wield the whip with the deliberate care and concentration of a practiced marksman. The reports which the local press drew from various members of the Conference in regard to this stockade made a great stir and the commissioner of public works has demanded an investigation. It is the system, however, which is mainly at fault. The dominant ideas of prison management, not only in Atlanta but in many of the Southern states, are simply retribution and economy. The possibility of reformation within penal institutions is a new idea to the men who manage stockades and convict camps. In the Chattahoochee brickyards, near Atlanta, which lease two hundred convicts from Fulton county, it is a matter of self-interest with the lessee to feed the men well. But at night the 170 negroes are locked in their dormitories with absolutely no restraint or supervision. From dusk until daylight they are simply abandoned to their own vicious inclinations. The contractor agrees to feed, clothe and house the prisoner, and to pay a stipulated sum for his services. So long as the man's habits do not seriously incapacitate him for work the contractor does not care what happens. It costs money to train morals or to do educational or reformatory work of any kind, and there is nothing in the bargain to warrant this expense. The following are a few strong indications that the Southern press is beginning to demand a better system:

Memphis *Commercial Appeal*: "The stories coming from the convict camp at the Brushy Mountain mines, with sidelights from the state's convict system, generally, furnish painful reading to the people of Tennessee. The facts brought out by the legislative investigating committee may be regarded as mere pocket-mining or surface nugget-hunting that has not reached the rich deposit submerged.

"Convicts have been whipped to death. Convicts have been whipped into physical helplessness. Convicts have been whipped sufficiently to keep them in bed for months and injure them permanently.

"The report of the legislative committee should not be passed by hurriedly. The bottom of this ugly scandal should be reached if it compels an extra session. Convicts condemned to penal servitude are still human and they should be humanely treated. Torturing them in the prison or mine recesses is a sin against high heaven. Of course the pilfering and plundering ought to cease, the guilty be made to disgorge and proper punishment

inflicted upon them; but the treatment of the convicts should be first attended to."

Among the recommendations of the legislative committee, the following, reported in the Nashville (Tenn.) *News*, are particularly suggestive:

"We recommend that the rules of the prison, both at Nashville and at Brushy Mountain, absolutely prohibit the use of all intoxicating liquors on the state's property by all its employees, both while on duty and off duty, except when prescribed by the prison physician.

"That the management of the state prison be divorced from politics as much as possible, and that every employee stand upon his merits alone.

"That the punishment of prisoners be changed from the present method for all minor offences; that in all cases of serious character, punishment by whipping be done with a strap half the size and weight of that used at present, save as to width and length; that for the first offence of a serious character they be whipped without being stripped; that only for very grave offences shall they be whipped upon the naked body; that they shall not be struck more than ten licks for any offence, and under no circumstances shall a prisoner be whipped, except by an officer, in the presence of an officer, and upon the recommendation of an officer.

"That an investigation be made by the prison commissioners to ascertain what method of punishment is in practice in other states, and that a more humane method of punishment be devised.

"That female prisoners be corrected without being whipped, except in most extreme cases.

"That the prisoners be allowed more outdoor exercise, and this especially applies to the main prison.

"That convict stores in the wings of the prison at Nashville be abolished, but that they be permitted to remain at Brushy Mountain, with every safeguard thrown around them to prevent smuggling of contraband articles.

"That the straw in the beds of the convicts be changed oftener and the bedding be washed more frequently, and that convicts on the upper walks of the main prison be required to keep their rooms in better order.

"That all prisoners at Brushy Mountain under sixteen years of age be immediately transferred to the main prison, and that a parole system be devised and adopted for prisoners under sixteen years of age."

Nashville (Tenn.) *Banner*: "It was for some years argued in Tennessee, that the state could not profitably abandon the barbarous lease system, but the more enlightened plan which followed the building of the new penitentiary in this state has brought the state a handsome revenue instead of proving a burden, as the advocates of the old system had urged that it would do. The lease system should be wholly abolished in all of the Southern states and plans of dealing with convict labor that better comport with the civilized spirit of the age, substituted in their stead.

"Yet, even under such a system as we have in Tennessee, there is need of the best safeguards and restrictions to prevent abuses, especially in the treatment of the prisoners."

Birmingham (Ala.) *News*: "One hundred per cent increase in the

state's revenue from convicts in three months, over the same period last year, is shown by the quarterly report of the convict department submitted yesterday to Governor Jenks.

"This increase is due to the change in the method of working the convicts, which became operative with the beginning of the present year. They are now worked under the immediate supervision of the state instead of being leased to the mine operators.

"The president of the board of convict inspectors reports that: 'The condition of the convicts at all the prisons, both under the control of the convict department and of the contractors, is as good, perhaps, better, than at any other time in the past.

"The percentage of deaths, I think, is smaller than it has been in the springtime for several years. Most of those who die are men and boys who have tuberculosis and would probably die, many of them, if they were not convicts. A considerable percentage of negroes convicted and sentenced to penitentiary imprisonment go there with venereal diseases which, if not remedied, develop rapidly into tuberculosis and in many instances result in death. These things are guarded against as closely as may be and many of those afflicted with them are rescued.

"Hospital conveniences are being steadily improved by contractors, and it may be said that many of them are now very good."

On July 1 of the present year the Illinois law, enacted in May last, took effect, abolishing contract convict labor, and providing for the employment of convicts for eight hours a day in manufacturing articles used by the state. It is substantially a duplicate of the measure recommended by the National Industrial Commission. This plan is known as the State Use System and was adopted in New York six years ago and in Massachusetts four years ago. In neither state has it been given such a trial as would declare it an unqualified success. Still it seems at present to be far superior to other plans and there is every reason to believe that it will be universally adopted. It has two good features. It provides proper employment for the prisoners and does not come into appreciable competition with free labor. Under this plan the prison becomes an industrial school, where many trades are taught and practiced and what is lost by the state in an economical sense it must gain in the improvement in the character of the convicts.

Women Tenement Inspectors in New York.²—Since October, 1902, the New York tenement house department has employed a small force of women inspectors of whom the same work is required as that done by men; and it may be said that the physical strain involved has not proved a serious obstacle to the work. After a few months the women inspectors are able to stand the active physical exercise for hours at a time and exposure to bad weather and to extremes of heat and cold without feeling any ill-effects and are indeed often in better health than when engaged in supposedly less trying work. Each inspector has a district assigned to her and is responsible for the sanitary supervision of the tenement houses there.

²Contributed by Emily W. Dinwiddie.

Her hours of field work are from 8.55 a. m. to 4 p. m. All details and statements of violation of the law being written after 4 o'clock from memoranda noted down during inspections. After filing at the office of the department her reports of her work of the preceding day she receives abstracts of the complaints which have been sent to headquarters in regard to insanitary conditions in her district. She receives re-inspection orders from the office forces and notices of the closing of contagious disease cases by the department of health. The complaints, as a rule, are investigated first. The inspector is kept in ignorance of the source from which these complaints come and she can truthfully disclaim all knowledge to the landlord who asks the name of the tenant reporting his house. In this way the occupants of tenement houses are now protected, it having previously been the custom of many landlords and agents to dispossess any family making a complaint of the house. This class of investigations varies greatly. One tenant will report simply rubbish in cellar or roof leaking, in which case the inspector need only see the part of the building specified and ascertain the occupants and arrangements of the house, learn whether it is a tenement or not and secure the name and address of the owner or agent in case the building is a tenement and there proves to be violation of the law. The law provides that tenements must be kept in sanitary condition and be properly lighted and ventilated and the tenants protected against fire. Other complaints necessitate a full inspection of the whole premises and building, a matter requiring considerable time, and complaints are sometimes sent in of houses which the inspector finds are not tenements, that is are not occupied or arranged to be occupied by three families or more doing cooking on the premises. These are referred to the department of health, such buildings being under its jurisdiction. Next to complaints in order of urgency come the re-inspections. When a report has been made of violations of the law in any tenement and the department has issued orders that these violations be removed, instructions are given the inspector to visit and learn whether the orders have been properly and fully complied with. If the walls were to be cleaned and the owner has had them papered she must learn whether all old paper has been removed before the new was put on. If plumbing repairs have been done she must learn whether the work has been in accordance with the plumber's requisition. When the re-inspections are finished investigations must still be made. After the recovery, removal or death of an infectious disease patient in a tenement house the department of health fumigates the apartment and the tenement inspector is then sent out to make a careful and thorough inspection of the whole building and premises, reporting in detail any insanitary conditions which she finds there. The inspection usually involves much hunting up of keys and often causes insolent or assumed surprise on the part of the janitor and tenants at the condition of old closed cellars, etc., and decayed pipes—sometimes sub-cellars are discovered floated several inches deep with foul water—while the tenants upstairs are priding themselves on the appearance of the houses which were veritable whited sepulchres. Such conditions as these are frequently found in the houses by the house inspector. Sometimes the state of the house is known to the

tenants, but they do not dare to complain or are too ignorant to do so or are accustomed to living in such surroundings, and by their indifference allow the house to become a menace to the health of the neighborhood. One Italian tenement when inspected was in so foul a condition that the odors from the premises could be noticed in four adjoining houses. The tenement dwellers view of the inspectors varies. As a rule they are cordially welcomed by housekeepers and tenants anxious to pour tales of grievances into their ears or to display unusual cleanliness and order. Agents and landlords when found on the premises are usually courteous and interested and ready to assist the inspection in any way. Sometimes, however, occupants of apartment houses or even of wretched hovels resent having their dwellings classed as tenements and inspected by the tenement house department, but this opposition grows less as time goes on and the new department becomes better known. Occasionally owners and housekeepers of badly kept houses or ignorant and easily frightened foreigners try to block the inspector's way, but a display of the badge and the printed copy of the New York charter giving the officers of the department the right of entrance, with a quiet explanation of the purpose of the visit, is usually sufficient to secure admission. It is very seldom that the assistance of the police officers of the department are called in, this being an extreme measure.

What are known as "spite" letters are quite frequent. A dispossessed tenant or one who for any reason has quarreled with the janitor or owner will often send a letter describing a house as in a very bad state when inspection will show that the report is utterly false. As a field for social study the inspectorship offers unusual opportunities. A woman undertaking the work has the entree to every tenement house in one or more districts, covering a considerable area. She has the advantage of a simple relation with the people she meets. Their daily life goes on undisturbed before her. They are not asking favors or striving in any way to appear any greater or less than they are in reality. The actual construction and arrangement of the house is full of meaning to the trained inspector who comes to take the same interest in the building as a doctor feels in his patients. There is a distinct pleasure in getting to the bottom of the difficulty in an involved case of bad plumbing or in re-inspecting a formerly dilapidated tenement house and finding that the entire building has been put in good order and repair. The marked improvement in the housing conditions throughout the district is of course the inspector's great encouragement. She also feels that the organization of a new civic department such as this is worthy of study and that the justification by its results, of a system of legislative interference on a large scale, is full of interest.

Playgrounds in New York Parks.—On July first seven playgrounds in the parks of Manhattan were opened, fully equipped with gymnastic apparatus for the use of both boys and girls, each in charge of a skilled teacher, who gives free lessons. In addition to these free playgrounds and free gymnasiums there are also free kindergartens where children can receive free instruction in basket weaving, play games and sing songs every day on the grass under the trees. All exercises will take place in daylight. The parks

included in this plan are "the Hamilton-Fish" of three and a half acres, in one of the most densely populated districts in Manhattan. William H. Seward Park is in an equally congested district, and contains three and a half acres. Next is Tompkins Square Park, with ten and a half acres; Concais Hook Park, consisting of eight and a half acres, on the East River; next the East River Park of twelve and a half acres, and Thomas Jefferson Park of fifteen and a half acres. The only west side park is the De Witt Clinton. The people living on the east side of New York are showing their appreciation of the efforts made in their behalf by the city reform administration. They are anxious to advance and are striving earnestly to better conditions and as far as they are able have joined hands with Mayor Low, Commissioners de Forest, Wilcox and Greene and District Attorney Jerome. They realize that their homes are made safer and cleaner and that playgrounds and parks are provided for them and their children. The plan which is now under consideration of grouping public buildings and playgrounds to form civic centres is one which should have the support of all. Very little thought has heretofore been given to beautifying the east side of New York and the fact that this grouping is being considered is eloquent testimony to progress. It means better health and better morals, and in a sense it means the regeneration of the east side of the city. The specific illustration of a civic centre is the one now urged by Mr. Robert Hunter in the block bounded by Eldridge, Rodneyson, Allen and Delancy streets. The University settlement now owns three blocks in this district. The plan places a Carnegie library at one corner adjoining the settlement, one of New York's finest schools now faces the block, in the centre will be a public bath and the rest of this space is to be given up to playgrounds for the hundreds of children who attend the school and the settlement kindergarten classes. If this plan is accepted there will be at least five public buildings grouped, two of them already built, and there will be a breathing space assured for one of the most densely populated districts in the world. The University settlement in Henry street is seeking improvements for its district and is urging the state to acquire the water front strip between Concais Hook Park and the water line. If this strip can be joined to the park the east side will have its own river side promenade, with a view looking over to the Navy Yard.

The Boston Children's Aid Society.—The last report of the secretary of the Children's Aid Society is very interesting reading. The object of the society is to secure for unfortunate children a fair chance in the world and to save them from physical and moral wreck. Ordinary methods are not always used in dealing with difficult cases by this society, and they in their wisdom devise plans to meet difficulties as they find them. Children are cared for from the tenderest age up to seventeen years, generally remaining with a limited oversight until they reach their majority. Children are placed for adoption, also at board in free homes, and for wages for some older boys and girls. Payment of board ceases generally when the child is between twelve and fourteen. Boys and girls are to be found from this society making their way through academies, colleges or professional schools. The constant supervision given to the children by the five salaried visitors, one man and four

women, is the most important feature of the work. Good homes are found for all children without trouble. The society is paid for boarding children during the year \$15,856, but more than half of this, \$8,028, is paid by relatives. By careful study and by heeding indications it has been found possible to arrive at the amounts relatives can pay. The society has undertaken juvenile probation work for the courts and has the oversight of 375 boys ranging from eight to fifteen years.

Home libraries have become an essential part of the work. Twenty books at a time are placed in a home and when read are replaced by others. A child in the home is the librarian. This in a land of public libraries seems almost an anomaly but the secretary, in a recent conversation, showed that it was not only an encouragement to the reading habit, but that it was a great help in raising the standard of the home. The attraction that the library is to the neighborhood is an incentive to live up to the conditions required as to care and cleanliness. It fosters the love of refinement and is a stimulus to all slow acting minds. The society intends to place home garden houses in the same way.

Children's Employment Bill in England.—There has been introduced into Parliament this session a minor bill known as the Children's Employment Bill which appears to have a good chance of becoming a law. In commenting on the bill the *London Graphic* says:

"In some directions it is possible that the bill goes somewhat too far. It has been attacked very bitterly for interfering needlessly between parent and child, and between employer and employee. The people, however, who take this view are apt to pick out the best illustrations of child employment and to ignore the worst. Yet it is to put a stop to the worst cases that the law is required and if the satisfactory cases alone existed no law would be needed. On the whole the provisions of the bill do not appear to err on the side of severity."

In commenting on the bill a prominent member said that "it is the duty of parents to support the children whom they have brought into the world" and that "the labor of young children only encourages reckless parental neglect." "Children should be taught from the earliest moment that they must work, but the work they have to do while children is to build up their mental powers by play and their physical powers by games. They will then be able to grapple with industrial work." A letter to the *London Times* complains because children under fourteen years of age are not allowed to work before six o'clock in the morning. This certainly is not a grave charge against the bill.

Lending Money to the Poor.—A bill has passed the New York legislature and was approved by Mayor Low and Governor Odell incorporating the Personal Property Loan Company with a capital of ten thousand dollars and for which one hundred thousand dollars has been pledged to start the business. It will aim to establish a system of pawn-shops, non-sectarian in character but in touch with church interests, that the worthy poor may be assisted. It is provided that loans shall be made on chattels and that interest at the rate of 6 per cent only shall be charged, or one-half of 1 per cent a

month Pawn-shops now established charge 3 per cent a month for the first six months and 2 per cent a month afterwards for loans under one hundred dollars and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent a month for all loans over one hundred dollars. The purpose of the law is a charitable one and the promoters of the scheme seek to be exempted from taxation and to be allowed to put on file chattel mortgages without payment of fees. The working managers alone will receive salaries and the bill provides that the directors shall not declare dividends exceeding 6 per cent in any one year. The first pawn-shop will be near Fifth avenue and Thirty-fourth street and is to be under the supervision of Father Colton and Dr. Burrell. The Provident Loan Association, which was formed to prevent people from being obliged to resort to pawn-shops, lends money on good security for 1 per cent a month. St. Bartholomew's Association, connected with Dr. Grier's Episcopal Church, lends money at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. This association finds it necessary to charge a fee for searching records before they advance money on household goods. Thomas M. Mulroy, president of the St. Vincent de Paul Society of the United States, the Rev. Dr. David J. Burrell, of the Marble Collegiate Church, the Rev. Alexander Doyle, of the Paulist Fathers, Edwin F. Cragin, the banker, R. B. Miller and others are backing the enterprise.

Visiting Nurses.—The thirteenth annual report of the Visiting Nurses' Association of Chicago contains information worthy of special mention. Fifteen nurses are now actively at work, 5,621 patients were cared for during the year and 37,986 visits were made. Very active work was done by this association during the recent visit of Dr. Lorenz and a large number of patients were brought to his clientele that would not have reached him in any other way. In the special classes this association has taught the children personal cleanliness and to take pride in improving their surroundings. Twice during the year 250 classes were visited by the nurses and leaflets concerning the care of the body were distributed. Visiting nurses also furnished soap, towels and tooth-brushes for all children who could not afford to buy them. The sympathies of boards of directors are very active in their interest.

The third annual report of the Concord New Hampshire District Nursing Association shows that the work is growing steadily in extent and usefulness. The physicians of the city are in entire sympathy with the work of the association and loud in its praises. An interesting feature is the supplementary work done by eight nurses from the New Hampshire State Hospital Training School. During the past year 359 cases have been traced and 2,834 calls made.

Nearly one thousand ladies in Peoria, Ill., have contributed one dollar each for the salary of a visiting nurse who is to work under the supervision of a bureau of associated charities. The growth of this movement is one of the hopeful signs of the times. The influence for good extended by visiting nurses is incalculable. First, the care of the sick in their homes. Second, the cleanliness that is the necessary accompaniment of this care. Third, the finding of a friend in the greatest hour of need, whose sympathies are broad enough to allow her to listen to all the family troubles. It is strange that more women who are anxious to work for the good of others do not fit

themselves for visiting nurses. It requires adaptability to be able to face all the conditions met with in the work, and the training received in a hospital is only a part of the training needed. An entire absence of the critical spirit, together with the diplomacy which must be used in getting into personal relations with the sick person and the family, make such training a necessity.

The New York *Sun* says there has been growing a marked demand for soap in the slums since the Board of Health employed nurses to visit the public schools in Manhattan. The work of these nurses is confined principally to schools in the congested tenement districts. Seventeen of the thirty-five nurses now on the school roll are working in Manhattan and dividing their time amongst sixty-three schools attended almost entirely by the offspring of foreigners. The Board of Health established this corps of nurses nearly a year ago for the express purpose of combating dirt and disease in the public schools and as an adjunct to the work of the doctors, detailed by the Board of Health. Two nurses visit the schools every day. In cases of serious illness or of contagious disease the child is taken out of school by the nurse and placed in the dispensary. Before the appointment of these nurses the absentee roll of certain schools was very large. There were frequent cases of children sent home for a day or two to be treated for head or skin disease—generally the outcome of uncleanness—who failed to appear again because there was no one in particular to nurse or look after them, and make them come back as soon as possible. Truancy became very frequent. In different schools where the nurse is stationed one room is set apart for an hour in the day as a sort of infirmary. The child who fails to pass the doctor reports the fact to the teacher, who enters it in her book and despatches the youngster to the principal, after which the child goes to the infirmary, where he is treated thoroughly on the spot, and directions are given for home treatment. Very often the home instructions are not followed. Then the nurse visits the home and does some missionary work. She first makes the mother or guardian thoroughly understand that the laws of America require cleanliness and that the laws must be obeyed. Children never object to being treated, not because they have fallen in love with cleanliness, but on account of the novelty of the situation and it takes them out of the classroom for a few minutes. Each nurse visits four schools a day. Children are not allowed to enter the schools of Manhattan in a noticeably dirty or untidy condition and principals are trying different expedients to gain good results. One, for instance, has succeeded by means of the necktie. Her school has become known as the necktie school. She believes that the necktie has no equal as a means of promoting cleanliness and some other virtues. She finds that when a boy of a tenement finds himself dressed up in one he begins to have some self-respect and takes more pains to keep his face clean. During one quarter 47,213 cases were treated by nurses in the public schools of Manhattan and 3,232 visits were made to the homes of the patients during the quarter.

The Hebrew Technical Institute.—The Hebrew Technical Institute, of New York City, educates boys and strives to make them independent and useful to the community. Two hundred boys are at present enjoying the

benefits of this model institution. No public money is used, the support of the school is undertaken by a few philanthropic citizens. Each boy is taught a trade, but he is allowed to choose his occupation in life, and to this end he is taught on lines that will be useful to him, no matter what trade he selects. The education of these boys combines the features of a trade school, a manual training school, a polytechnic institute and a public school. Their books and tools are given to them. Warm lunches are provided, at a charge of one cent per day; the lunch is furnished in a well-ventilated, well-lighted room, where the boys discuss their work and develop their useful instincts in a manly way. The boys have access to a complete and well-chosen library and they are permitted to take books to their homes. The institute has established a savings bank and the boys are encouraged to save. Hot and cold shower baths are furnished free. One of the two buildings occupied by the school was given by Mr. and Mrs. U. Stilnam, in memory of their only son who died young.

III. NOTES ON COLONIES AND COLONIAL GOVERNMENT

Rice Culture in the Philippines.—A recent bulletin of the Philippine Bureau of Agriculture received by the Bureau of Insular Affairs, War Department, publishes in an interesting form the results of its investigation of the methods of growing this important staple.

Notwithstanding the fact that rice is one of the principal agricultural products of the archipelago, its consumption considerably exceeds its production.

Statistical information relative to importations during the Spanish régime is meagre and entirely unsatisfactory, though fragmentary details available would seem to indicate that under normal conditions and for a period at least there were considerable exportations of this commodity to China. It is known that the acreage under cultivation has been decreased to one-fourth as an incident of the war, cholera, rinderpest and surra.

During the present year the decrease in production has been so great that in order to avoid famine the Philippine government has imported large quantities of rice and is selling it to the people at cost.

The method of cultivation of rice in the Philippines is in many respects similar to that practiced in China, Japan, India and other Oriental countries. The process of preparing the seed beds, transplanting, puddling the soil, and harvesting the crop all conform to the practice of other communities where labor is cheap. The probable economic prohibition against the introduction of advanced methods and the consequent failure of occupation of a greater portion of a crowded population dependent upon the soil, which will apply to China and other competitors, loses its force of argument in the Philippines with a population of only about 8,000,000 and an area equal in extent to the whole of New England and the State of New York. It is even fast becoming a necessity, as wages increase under American standards, to introduce improved methods in order to increase productive capacity necessary for competition with foreign rice. As an illustration it is stated that while the Filipino laborer now receives only \$20 gold per annum and board and a Louisiana laborer \$200 gold and board, yet the former, impeded in part at least by crude methods, while receiving one-tenth the wage of the latter, produces but one-hundredth of the rice.

There are extensive areas distributed throughout the archipelago whose soils are admirably adapted to the growing of rice. In fact, any fairly fertile soil that has sufficient clay to retain moisture is suited to its needs. Low, level lands are for many reasons preferable.

Although rice is a water plant good drainage is essential to its cultivation. In the Philippines but little attention is paid to irrigation and the rains are depended upon to inundate the land. Were advantage taken of the large number of streams which traverse the country dependence need no longer be placed on the rainy season, and there might be two resultant crops instead of one as at present. The present ditching and leveling methods are primitive

and need improvement, and they should be so arranged as to prevent stagnation of the water and the consequent growing of grasses which thrive under such conditions.

Within ten or twelve days before the grain is ripe the water is drained off for the harvesting. The ripened crop is cut with a sickle or cradle, but under many conditions to greater advantage with the modern reaper and binder.

The machines used in threshing rice are practically the same as those used in the wheat fields of the western United States.

The installation of a 500-acre rice farm with suitable modern equipment, including thresher and traction engine, is estimated at \$5,000, and the gross receipts for a single crop at from \$15,000 to \$20,000 gold.

The Bureau of Agriculture predicts an increase in the production of rice and a consequent saving of money now paid out for importation.

The Reports of Provincial Governors in the Philippines, recently issued by the Bureau of Insular Affairs, give an interesting picture of the local conditions in the archipelago; a few of these are given in condensed form.

William F. Peck, governor of the Province of Benguet, reports in part as follows:

"I am pleased to be able to state, that with the natives, my administration has been marked by a hearty and continuous co-operation on the part of the officials, and manifest contentment on the part of the people. In many respects conditions have arisen within the past year that would try the constancy of the people more than ordinarily occurs in a decade.

"I reported a year ago that the best roads were but trails, and most of the trails were impassable paths for mounted travelers. The several pueblos constituting the province have repaired old roads and constructed new ones, involving much labor, until to-day I can ride over at least two hundred miles of road with perfect safety and comparative ease. This work was done without cost to the government, the project of which at first astounded the native officials, but being done, brought with it a feeling of content among the laborers, which amounts to almost a sentiment of pride, if I may apply the term to so humble a people as the Igorrotes of Benguet. In addition to this labor, there were continually employed on the Benguet wagon road from 250 to 500 Igorrotes from this province, who received from forty cents a day up in insular currency.

"Just at this time the cholera attacked our borders, swept through the road camp and from there spread with astonishing rapidity throughout the province. The Igorrotes having no knowledge of medicine, have always resorted in time of sickness to gathering about the afflicted and holding a feast, sacrificing birds or animals and believing that in the blood thereof there were curative properties. They took no sanitary precautions and these meetings resulted in spreading the pestilence. It was, however, a custom, I might say a religious custom, which they had held sacred for ages and which Spanish rule had never suspended.

"I deemed it most essential for the welfare of the province to stop all such gatherings, to stop the people from traveling from one pueblo to another,

and even from one house to another, and called the presidentes and the cabezas of the different pueblos, and the chiefs and head-men of the province to La Trinidad, explained the cause of the spread of the disease, the sanitary precautions to be taken, the quarantine to be effected and promised in time, when the danger was passed, to allow them to resume the customs of the Igorrotes pertaining to disease and death, which for the time being were suspended.

"The promptness and thoroughness with which the natives complied with this order was a most satisfactory proof of their confidence and regard for the American government. Then ensued a long and tedious fight against the cholera, and when the smallpox broke out, leaving forty-three dead in one barrio, it seemed as though the fates were opposing the province and pestilence was victor.

"However, in traveling about the province I find new houses, new rice fields, new coffee plantations, larger gardens and clean yards, all of which indicate that many consider themselves safe in property and life and content to begin again accumulating property to repay the losses of the last seven years. Again it is a gratifying novelty to the Igorrote that the white man, especially if it be an official, pays for what he gets, be it produce, curios or labor.

"All the pueblos of the province are in good financial condition and five are building new tribunals.

"As justice of the peace, I have had occasion to try only thirty-two cases and have been appealed to as arbitrator only eight times by Igorrotes, who were not satisfied with the findings of their native tribunals. Of course this does not represent the entire criminal calendar of the province, for each pueblo has its council which sits as a court over petty difficulties arising between individuals. From these councils the Igorrotes seldom appeal, accepting the decision of their own head-men as first and final."

A. U. Betts, governor of the Province of Albay, writes:

"The year opened with everything in a very peaceful and prosperous condition. There have been two regular sessions of the Court of First Instance held at the capital during the past year and it is gratifying to note the great confidence these people display in the administration of justice. The road between Legaspi and Ligao, which passes through the centre of the great hemp country, was practically completed during the early part of the year. The enormous traffic, however, passing over this highway made it necessary, in order to maintain it in passable condition, to eliminate the antiquated bull-cart. The provincial board, therefore, prohibited their passing over the road and made it obligatory to use carts with modern wheels movable on the axle and with a four-inch or greater tread.

"These restrictions crippled the transportation facilities for a short time, but suitable wheels were quickly imported, and the inconvenience at first experienced was readily compensated for, by not only the preservation of the highways, but also by the amount of cargo the carts were able to carry. To illustrate:

"It formerly required three days for a cart, drawn by three bulls, to make

a trip over the full length of the road, while with modern carts on the new highway, the trip can now be made in one day, using only two bulls and carrying 50 per cent more cargo.

"When these facts became evident, no further argument was necessary to induce the cart owners to purchase modern equipage. It has been estimated that the saving in the cost of transportation over this highway, in one year only, as contrasted with former conditions, amounts to \$720,000, local currency. This saving to the people of the province has been effected in one year through an expenditure, for the maintenance of this highway, of about \$67,880, local currency. There have been imported into the province during the past year about 5,000 cart wheels of modern construction.

"The question of transportation still remains one of the most important problems to deal with in the province. The greater portion of this year the average price for a bull-cart per day has been \$40, local currency, while the average cost of a carromata has been \$25. The great demand for transportation is for moving the hemp from the interior down to the seaports and taking rice and merchandise from the ports to the interior. There were shipped from the port of Legaspi this year about 344,270 piculs of hemp and 455,770 piculs of rice entered the same port.

"This great demand for transportation and the excessively high price charged has induced outside capital to bring into the province modern traction engines. These have an eighteen-inch tread while the cars used in their trams have an eight-inch tread, causing therefore but little damage to the highways. One of these engines has been known to transport at one trip 260 piculs of hemp, or an amount that would require about forty bull-carts to transport. The pressing demand for transportation has resulted in the establishment of stage lines, and the introduction of bicycles and automobiles, which are now running on the public highways. Four hundred of the former have been imported into the province during the year.

"The exportation of hemp from this province during the year has been in the neighborhood of 500,000 piculs for which the people were paid about \$12,500,000, local currency. The production of ylang-ylang for the year just closed was valued at about \$55,000, copra at \$300,000 and sinamay at \$3,250,000.

"The receipts of the provincial treasurer from all sources for the year amounted to \$359,095.48, local currency. Of this sum \$131,959.82 was returned to the municipalities, that being their portion of the general tax, and after deducting all sums for outstanding obligations and unfulfilled contracts there is a balance of \$45,755.71, local currency, in the treasury.

"It is gratifying to note the great progress that has been made in the educational department of the province during the past year. Numerous school buildings have been erected in all parts of the province, and some municipalities are deserving of special mention for the excellent buildings constructed. There are in the province one high school, 38 schools directed by American teachers in which English is taught, 6 parochial schools and about 700 private schools in which instruction is given in Spanish and Bicol.

"The best of feeling exists between the natives and the American resi-

dents of the province, and it is gratifying to note the readiness with which the people adopt new ideas and modern customs.

"This province opens a wonderful field for the introduction of American supplies and implements, and it is sincerely hoped that American manufacturers and merchants will take advantage of these new markets."

Sr. G. Gonzaga, governor of the Province of Cagayan, reports:

"The Province of Cagayan, situated in the extreme northern part of the Islands of Luzon, has continued in a peaceful and tranquil condition since the establishment thereon of civil government, which was accomplished without the least disturbance or occasion of disorder in September, 1901. . . . The most complete peace has reigned, clear and evident proof of the sincere and loyal adherence to the sovereignty of North America and of satisfaction with the present governmental system.

"Under this peace, the people of this province would most surely have enjoyed such prosperity as peace affords, had not unhappy events combined to prevent it, such as the mortality of carabaos, and other diseases of cattle and horses. This calamity was followed by unexpected overflows of the river which inundated lands planted in corn and tobacco, then came the smallpox epidemic, and in its turn the plague of locusts, and to cap it all, the cholera, which, while it has not wrought great havoc, has greatly unsettled the minds of the people.

"The dire calamities mentioned, together with the depression in tobacco, which is the principal product of this soil, place the inhabitants of the tobacco-raising pueblos of the province in a most deplorable condition.

"Through visits to all the municipalities the undersigned has become convinced of the complete tranquillity which exists, notwithstanding that there has not completely disappeared the hateful despotism which the higher classes observe toward the lower classes in nearly all the pueblos, due to the ignorance of the latter.

"To destroy this power, the education of the lower classes becomes necessary. . . . All the pueblos of the province should be given American teachers and there should be established institutions of higher learning, of agriculture, arts and trades in the provincial capital for the education of the youth of Cagayan.

"Agriculture has declined for the past two years. Numerous circumstances have combined to bring about this critical condition. The dearth of work animals, the plague of locusts and the continuous epidemic diseases which have appeared and terrorized the people to such an extent as to cause them to abandon their fields, and finally the lack of water at the plowing season.

"The depression in the tobacco market is due not only to the low price of the same in Manila, for which there is no explanation except that it is done by the intrigues of the great manufacturers of cigarettes in Manila, but it is also due to the excessive tariff duties upon the importation of this article which prevents American merchants from purchasing the same. In order to combat this monopoly, so highly injurious to the inhabitants of this

province, we suggest the remedy of lowering the tariff of import duty upon tobacco to 25 per cent instead of 75 per cent, as it is at present.

"The density of population in the two Ilocos provinces makes their territory insufficient for many who desire to acquire land and free themselves from the cruelty and unrestrained avarice of land owners. In the valley of the Cagayan, with its sparse population, there is everywhere to be found virgin soil which lacks labor only to cultivate it. In order to secure this needed change of population a wagon road should be built from Bangui, the nearest pueblo in Ilocos Norte, to Claveria, the first pueblo in the Province of Cagayan."

James Ross, governor of the province of Ambos Camarines, reports the following:

"In my last annual report I stated: 'Absolute peace prevails in all sections.' I am very glad to be able now to repeat that statement and to report the peaceful conditions that have existed ever since the end of the insurrection, unchanged. The people of this province evidently understand that the maintenance of peace and order is a condition precedent to progress and prosperity, and I desire to say that to the people of the province themselves belongs the credit for the very satisfactory conditions that exist within our borders. The work of the constabulary has consisted almost entirely in guarding the borders and patrolling the mountain regions, where the wild tribes were formerly considered more or less dangerous by the Christian inhabitants of neighboring barrios. Commercial houses are in the habit of sending large sums of money out to distant points by unarmed messengers, American prospectors and explorers have penetrated the most remote mountain regions in parties of two and three, or entirely alone, and none of these have been molested in the slightest degree.

"In the recently organized towns municipal affairs are being administered in a satisfactory manner, very few complaints against officials having been received during the year. The only charge sustained was one against Inocentes Aspe, president of Magarao, for having suppressed cholera reports from his town, and he was dismissed from office.

"The province suffered during the year from an epidemic of Asiatic cholera, there having been 1,371 cases and 974 deaths. Upon the appearance of the disease energetic measures were taken to prevent its spread. Dr. Shannon Richmond, U. S. V., was detailed to assist the provincial authorities, and to his able and energetic efforts is due the success with which the epidemic was combated. Aside from the cholera, general health conditions were better during the year than at any time during my three years' experience in the province.

"The migration of laborers from the impoverished rice land country to the rich hemp districts, mentioned in my last report, has continued during part of the year, and in this manner the demand for labor in the hemp industry has been in part supplied, resulting in a material increase in hemp production. During the year the province exported 251,961 piculs of hemp. The other products exported are rattan, ylang-ylang and copra. The growth of the hemp industry last year was not solely along the lines of production from existing fields, but there was quite a boom in opening up new lands in localities where

no effort had formerly been made to cultivate abaca. From all parts of the province we received information that almost every man fortunate enough to possess a tract of land large enough and suitable for the purpose was planting hemp. It will require from two to three years for these new fields to mature, but when that time comes Ambos Camarines may be looked to as a strong competitor for the first place as a hemp-producing province.

"The agricultural possibilities of this province are practically unlimited. It has a fertile soil that will grow almost anything, and with a population of the most peaceable and friendly people in the archipelago offers a most inviting field for the investment of American capital in agricultural enterprises, provided, of course, that some means can be found for supplying the necessary labor.

"The province contains large tracts of fine grazing lands, and in former times stock-raising was one of the principal industries. The past year has been productive of most excellent results in school work. There are now in the province, under the direct control of American teachers, twenty-eight schools with a teaching staff of twenty-seven American and thirty-five native teachers. The enrollment for the entire province is three thousand and seventy-nine, with an average daily attendance of two thousand one hundred and forty-two.

"There are about one hundred and thirty-five miles of road in the province, of which fifteen are fairly good and the remaining one hundred and twenty, a part of which has been lately repaired, still need further repairs at an estimated cost of about four hundred thousand dollars, local currency. Twenty-five more bridges are needed, of which at least twenty are an urgent necessity.

"The affairs of all departments are in good condition and complete harmony exists throughout the administration. The honesty, fidelity and efficiency of the Filipino officials, which I took occasion to comment upon last year, I desire to mention again at this time."

Philippine Weather Bureau.—Although the meteorological service of the Philippine Islands is probably the oldest established in the extreme East, no full and comprehensive report of its operations has been available for public reference until that of its director, Rev. Fr. José Algué, S. J., for 1901-2 was published in two parts, including a report of the secretary of the Weather Bureau on the establishment of the service, its development under the Spanish government and its reorganization under the present régime, and covering a period from 1865 to 1902. This report, in attractive form, has just been received by the Bureau of Insular Affairs, and bears evidence of careful preparation and compilation.

To the Jesuit order belongs the credit of having first recognized the importance of meteorological observations to the commercial and agricultural interests of the islanders and their neighbors. Under the enthusiastic direction of Fr. Federico Fauna, the justly famed Manila Observatory was installed in 1865 with the necessary instruments for its important work. The story of the increase of the facilities of the observatory and of its valuable instruments, added from time to time, is one to be read with interest, and

the results obtained stand as a monument to the tireless energy of the savants who have directed the institution.

The usefulness of its workings began to be felt and appreciated in 1879 when the observatory began a series of wonderfully correct prognostications on the probable trajectory of typhoons. These, then novel, predictions attracted considerable attention to the observatory and from that time it has enjoyed an enviable reputation in the scientific world. The warnings sent out have been of benefit not only to the people of the Philippines but have a recognized value to the inhabitants of adjacent countries similarly subject to the ravages of these terrific storm conditions. Their importance to shipping interests cannot be overestimated.

Upon the American occupation most cordial relations were at once established with those in charge of the observatory, and while, through lack of prompt communication with the secondary stations due to internal disturbances, the data for forecasts was not so complete, yet the bureau rendered efficient service and continued to display weather signals, which commendable and public spirited attitude met with prompt recognition from Admiral Dewey, then commanding the American naval forces in Asiatic waters.

The Philippine Commission, after conference with the authorities of the Weather Bureau at Washington and under date of May 22, 1901, published an act organizing the Philippine Weather Bureau. By this act the bureau is required to print and distribute daily reports of weather conditions together with its forecasts, and under it those formerly in charge have been continued in its direction, and generous appropriations have enabled them to increase their usefulness through the establishment and reorganization of stations and the purchase of necessary instruments therefor.

Philippine Tobacco.—Professor Clarence W. Dorsey, soil physicist, connected with the Philippine Bureau of Agriculture, has prepared a bulletin on the cultivation of tobacco, which has recently been received by the Insular Bureau, and contains many items of interest relative to tobacco growing in the Philippines, and also gives instructions to growers as to the best methods of cultivating, harvesting and curing the crop.

Philippine tobacco has long been held in high esteem in the Orient, and Manila cigars maintain the same rank in the eastern countries that Havana cigars occupy in Europe and America. To-day tobacco stands third among the exports from the Philippines.

Tobacco was introduced into the Philippines soon after the Spaniards took possession, seed having been brought from Mexico by missionaries. Little effort was made by the government to restrict or encourage the cultivation of tobacco until 1781 when it became a state monopoly. While the monopoly was in force, each family in the tobacco districts of Luzon was compelled to grow 4,000 plants and deliver the entire crop to the agents of the government. None of the crop was reserved for the use of the planter and a fine was imposed when the crop was short.

After harvest the leaves were selected and bought by government agents, and bundles of inferior leaves were rejected and burned. Native houses were

searched for concealed tobacco and fines and penalties imposed on those who failed to comply with the law.

The profits from the monopoly, finally abolished December 31, 1882, annually amounted to several million pesos.

Since that time the cultivation and manufacture of the crop has been in the hands of private individuals and companies. At the present time the greater part of the tobacco grown in the islands comes from Luzon. The products of Isabela and Cagayan provinces are the most highly esteemed, while considerable quantities are produced in Union and the Ilocos provinces, on the west coast of northern Luzon. Nueva Ecija formerly raised a fair grade of tobacco, but the cultivation has fallen off in late years. Tobacco is grown in small quantities in the Visayan and southern islands.

Philippine tobacco is nearly all utilized in the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, and finds a ready sale in Spain (which consumes more than one-half of the total production), England, Hong Kong (where it is shipped to Asiatic ports), and British East India. During the year 1900 these countries bought more than seven-tenths of the entire crop. The agreeable aroma and flavor of the better grades of tobacco grown in the islands have won for it a high place among the fine cigar tobaccos of the world, and, for a long time, it ranked next to the celebrated Cuban tobacco. When we consider the desirable qualities of Philippine tobacco, with the imperfect cultivation, curing, and fermentation it receives, and the improvements and advances that have been made in other tobacco countries, it is clear that every care and attention should be given the crop to enable it to regain its former position, if not to make it superior to the finest tobacco now grown in the world.

The markets of the United States offer every inducement for the improvement and spread of the Philippine tobacco industry. This becomes all the more evident when we consider the vast sums of money annually expended by the United States for foreign tobacco. During the year ended June 30, 1900, the United States paid for Cuban tobacco \$7,615,991, and \$4,569,271 for Sumatra tobacco. During this same year the Philippines exported to the United States only a few hundreds of dollars worth of tobacco, or less than one-hundredth of one per cent of the tobacco importations of that country.

In the manufacture of high-grade cigars, certain essentials are necessary. The tobacco must burn smoothly and freely, with a pleasant taste, not rank and strong, nor too mild. When the taste is pleasant, not sharp and bitter, the aroma will invariably be good. The wrapper of the cigar, as distinguished from the filler, must be light in color, rich in grain, thin in texture, small in vein and stem, very elastic, and of good burning quality. It should stretch and cover well, have little aroma and appear well on the cigar. After such a suitable wrapper leaf is grown, it must be properly cured, assorted and classified. The manufacturer can never afford to pay a high price for a bale of tobacco, unless he can calculate just how many suitable leaves it will contain. This is one reason why Sumatra tobacco commands such a high value, for so carefully is the grading and assorting done that the manufacturer knows how many cigars each package of tobacco will wrap, and that the color will be uniform.

For cigar filler the leaves should be somewhat shorter, of medium body, have a rich brown color and burn smoothly and freely. The quality of the filler determines the character of the cigar; hence the filler must possess the desirable aroma that distinguishes a good cigar.

Philippine tobacco has some of the above properties and has earned its reputation, on account of its agreeable aroma, fine veins and notable elasticity. This applies only to the better quality of tobacco grown on the alluvial lands of the Cagayan River, in northern Luzon. The tobacco grown in the Visayan Islands is coarser, uneven in color, and of greater strength. From the provinces along the west coast of northern Luzon the tobacco is of heavy body, and that grown near the sea has but little combustibility. Its ragged, broken character also lowers its market value.

Professor Dorsey believes that the islands can and should produce cigar-filler tobacco that is fully equal to the finest product of the Vuelta Abajo district of Cuba, and a cigar wrapper equal to Sumatra tobacco. With careful attention to soil and climatic conditions, it is believed districts can be found that will raise tobacco similar in flavor and aroma to that grown in the best districts of Turkey.

Filipino Labor—The Bureau of Insular Affairs has given to the press a copy of a letter written by Mr. H. Krusi, vice-president of the Atlantic, Gulf and Pacific Company, which has the contract for the harbor improvements at Manila, and addressed to Governor Taft, in reply to his request for a report on Filipino labor. The letter is as follows:

"First. We believe that Filipino labor can successfully be used. We are employing about one thousand Filipinos, which is a practical demonstration that this statement is not a theory.

"Second. To employ successfully Filipino labor is, to the American employer of labor, a new business which has to be learned. If he cannot learn it, he cannot do business in the Philippine Islands.

"Third. In general the Filipinos have to be taught to work. This requires a considerable proportion of intelligence, high-grade American foremen and mechanics.

"Fourth. The way to keep the Filipino laborer permanently in one's employ is to arrange his surroundings so that he is better off and more contented there than anywhere else. This we have attained by means of providing homes for the Filipinos and their families; also amusements, including Sunday fiestas and schools where their children may be educated.

"Fifth. We are opposed to the introduction of the Chinese. The only argument that we can see in its favor is that it may somewhat expedite the development of the resources of the islands. This temporary advantage is, we believe, overbalanced and overwhelmed by the ultimate injury to both the Americans and natives in the islands.

"Sixth. We believe that the greatest need of the islands is the abolition of the Dingley tariff as far as it applies to the Philippines. We want the American market, not the Chinese laborer."